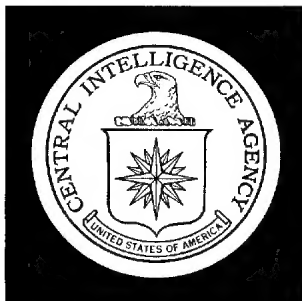


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W A R N I N G

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FOREWORD

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This Handbook [], one of a series, provides basic information on Cambodia. Unlike earlier Handbooks, which appeared in a bound format, this document is published looseleaf to permit its updating in a rapidly changing Southeast Asian scene. The Handbook consists of three Parts. As the situation may require, supplemental chapters may be prepared or other materials added. The component chapters incorporated in this printing are:

Part I	<u>THE SETTING</u>
Chapter I	History of Cambodia
Part II	[] <u>ENVIRONMENT</u>
Chapter I	The Land
Chapter II	The People
Chapter III	The Economy
Chapter IV	Transportation
Chapter V	Telecommunications
Part III	<u>INTERNAL SECURITY</u>
Chapter I	Armed Forces
Chapter II	Police and Intelligence Services
Chapter III	Subversion and Insurgency

Each Chapter is described by its respective Table of Contents which includes references to appropriate maps, tables and photographs. A Reading List is included, when relevant, after each Chapter. An Historical Chronology and a Recommended Films list are found in an Appendix.

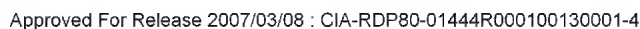
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The Handbook was produced by CIA and, with the exception of the Armed Forces chapter which was coordinated with DIA, has not been coordinated outside the Agency. A variety of classified and open sources was used in its production. NIS publications provided general background, updated to reflect changes which have taken place since Sihanouk's fall from power and the outbreak of war in Cambodia. Component chapters were written by Agency specialists in the fields of economics, geography, medicine, population, telecommunications, and transportation. The chapters on history, armed forces, police and intelligence services and subversion and insurgency were written by [redacted] and coordinated with current intelligence and area desk specialists. The several classifications of the component chapters (SECRET or SECRET/NOFORN) derive from the intelligence materials used in their preparation. The overall classification of the Handbook is SECRET/NOFORN.

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 - CAMBODIA

PART I

THE SETTING

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CHAPTER I -- HISTORY OF CAMBODIA

The remnant of the once vast and powerful Khmer Empire, Cambodia is the oldest state of the Indochinese peninsula. Its history -- much of it lost in legend -- reaches back to the ancient kingdom of Funan, which arose during the first century of the Christian era. Today one of the smallest countries of Southeast Asia, Cambodia is acutely conscious of the fact that some seven centuries ago her suzerainty extended across the breadth of Southeast Asia from the South China Sea to the Bay of Bengal. The country has witnessed a long history of Thai and Vietnamese encroachments, and it was only the establishment of the French protectorate in 1863 that prevented the final dissolution of Cambodia as a nation.

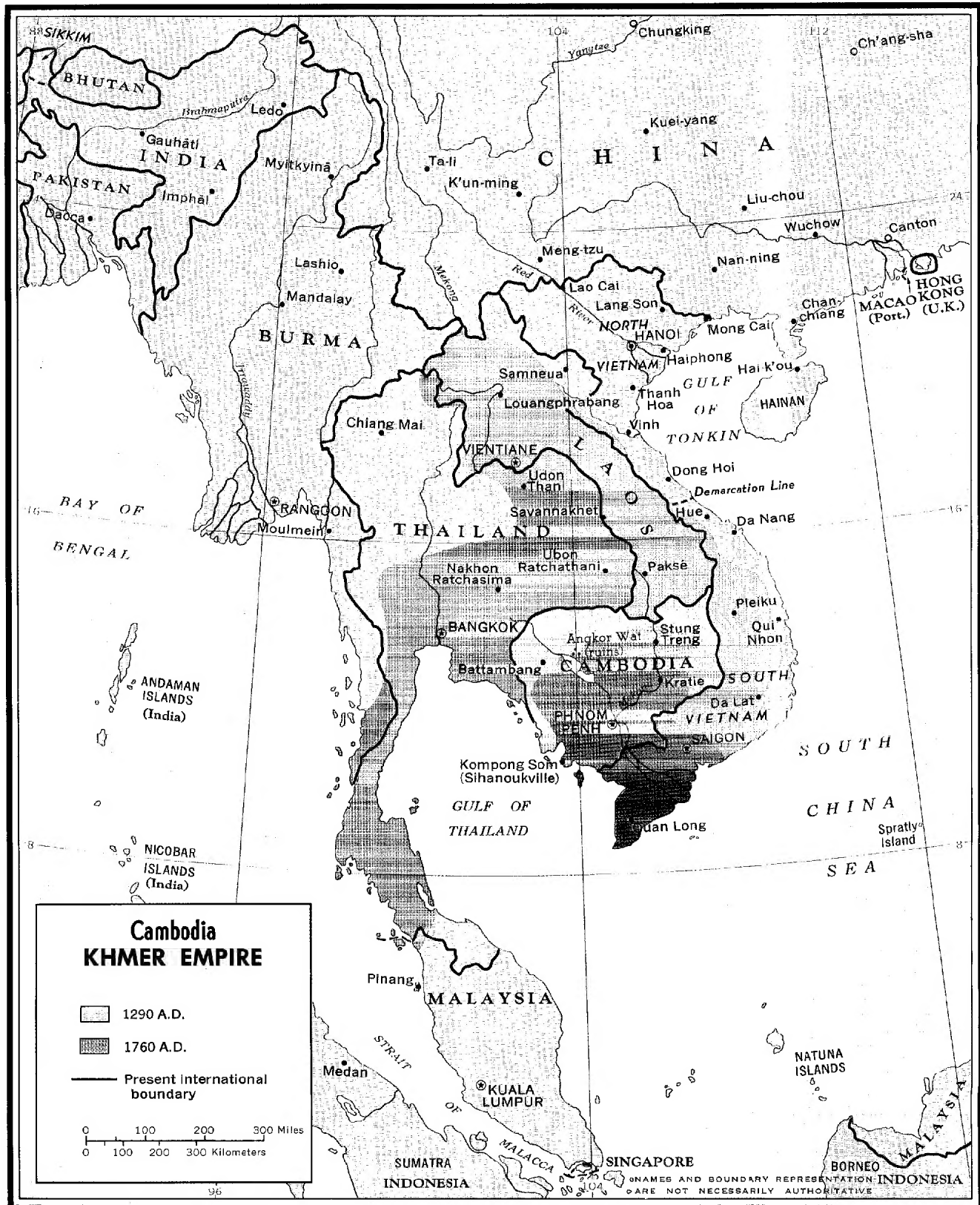
Of all the prehistoric peoples who lived in the land now known as Cambodia, only the descendents of the Chams and the primitive Khmer Loeu tribes have survived. Many diverse peoples contended for the fertile lands that form the Mekong River valley and the central plain of present-day Cambodia. By the first century A.D., the Khmer people were an already racially mixed group from the north, sharing the Mekong with the Indianized Funanese and the Cham. The Funanese had overcome the other tribes by the third century A.D., and the area became known as Funan. During the fourth century, an Indian Brahman ruled the country, bringing Hindu influence to bear on its customs, legal code, architecture and alphabet, which is still to be seen in modified forms.

The Khmer state of Chen-la, located farther north on the Mekong, was the chief vassal state of Funan. By the middle of the sixth century, it controlled and eventually annexed Funan. From 535 to 802, the Khmer were consolidated into a powerful empire which eventually extended its hegemony over all of present-day Cambodia and much of Thailand, Vietnam, and Laos. The northern boundaries reached Yunnan province of southern China. It was during this period that the name "Cambodia" was derived. According to legend, the founder of the Khmer Dynasty was Kambu Svayambhuva; his subjects were called "Kambuja", sons of Kambu, hence the French "Cambodge" and the English Cambodia. This is the king to whom Cambodian monarchs trace their lineage.



Figure 1. Angkor Wat, largest of the Angkor temples. Central tower rises over 220 feet. Surrounding moat has maximum width of 660 feet.

Cambodia reached its zenith during the Angkorean or Kambujan Era (802 - 1432). Parts of Burma were added to the empire, and great political, economic and cultural achievements were recorded. The magnificent monuments of Angkor Thom, the capital city, and the temple complex of Angkor Wat were remarkable accomplishments. Paved avenues, waterways, and irrigation systems were laid out. Scholars, artists, and religious teachers traveled to the cultural centers of India. The ancient kings, greatest of whom was Jayavarman VII, who reigned from 1181 to 1201, acted as patrons of learning and the arts. The remarkable empire arose and peaked while Europe was passing through the Dark Ages. Present-day Cambodians recall its glories with the same sense of pride that modern Italians feel for ancient Rome.



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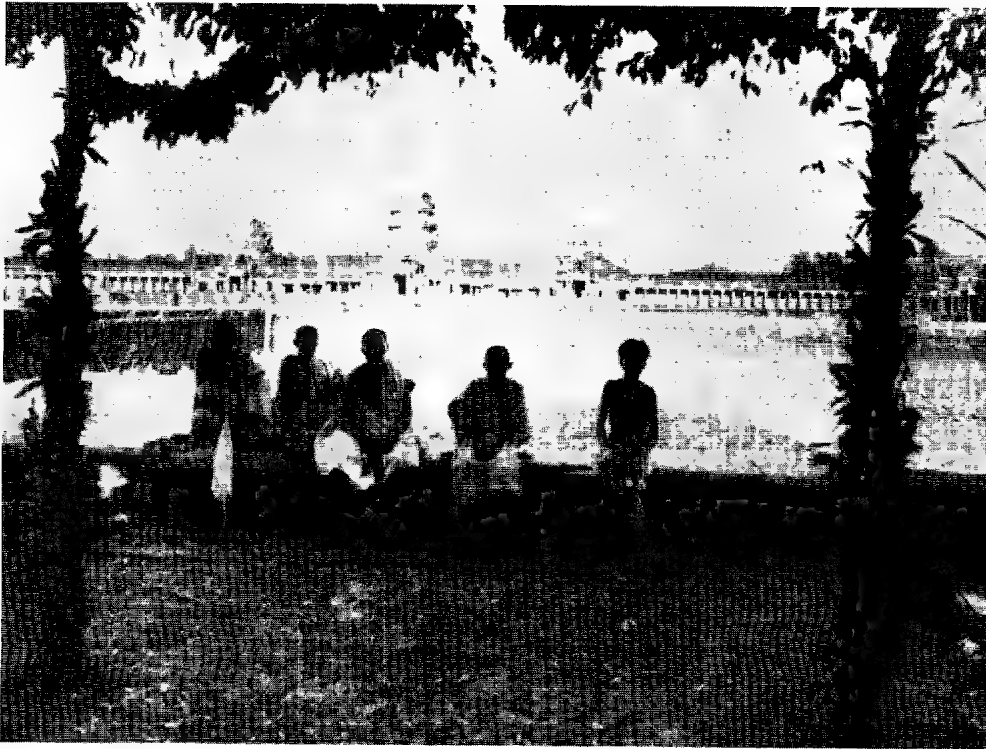


Figure 2. Angkor Wat, built during early 12th century by Suryavarman II.

The Empire began to disintegrate after the death of Jayavarman VII. An important contributing factor, starting in the 11th century, was the change from Brahmanism to the passive new religion of Theravada Buddhism which called for a peaceful environment, incompatible within an overextended empire whose societal system was based upon slaves captured in war. Never more than a loose political structure even at its height, the Khmer Empire faced increasing pressure from other maturing peoples. The land was racked by constant dynastic strife and repeated Thai invasions, during which thousands of artists and scholars were carried off to slavery. The last sacking and abandonment of the capital city, Angkor, in 1432, is considered the turning point in Cambodian history. Too close to the Thai border, Angkor never again would be a capital. In time, jungle overran the great temples and monuments that were too costly to maintain, and knowledge of Angkor gradually faded from Cambodian consciousness.

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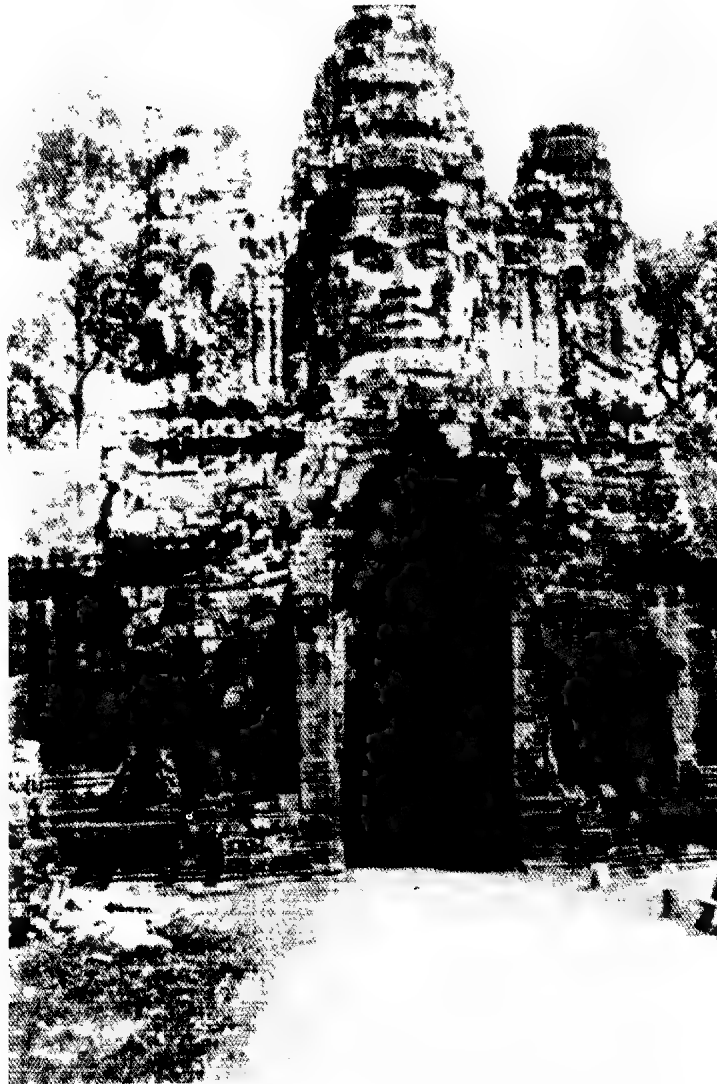


Figure 3. Sentry gate at Angkor Thom.

The 400-year period between abandonment of Angkor and the advent of the French protectorate, one of gradual decay, was marked by defensive struggle against Thailand and Annam. Unlike the experience of Vietnam, there was little contact with European merchants and missionaries. In its efforts to survive, the royal court was forced to move from place to place, to play off one antagonist against another, and to relinquish choice territory.

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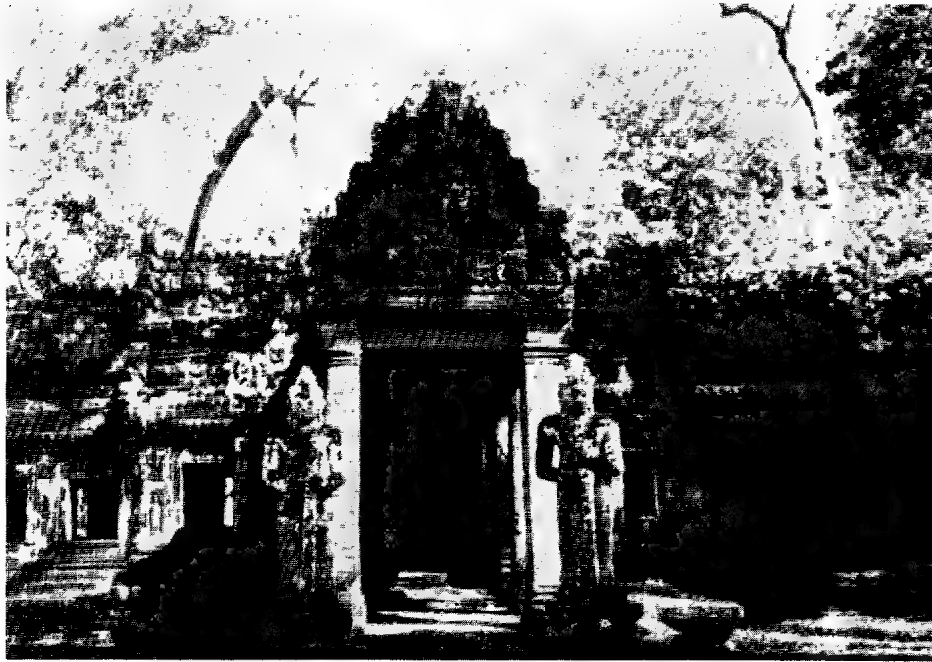


Figure 4. Entrance at Preah Khan temple.

In the face of increased Thai and Vietnamese pressure, the Cambodian king sought French protection, little realizing that the treaty of 1863 which made his country a French protectorate would lead to complete French domination. The treaty gave the French exclusive control over Cambodian foreign affairs, the right to defend Cambodia, and installed a French Resident Superior as executive. The 1884 Conventions reduced the country to semi-colonial status and, in 1887, Cambodia's colonial status became official when it was made a part of the French Indochina Union with Cochin China, Annam, Tonkin, Laos and the French leasehold of Kwang-chow-wan.

French colonial rule both preserved and modified traditional Cambodian society. Cambodia was protected against Thai/Vietnamese conquest and her identity was preserved within the structure of the French Indochina Union. The status and dignity of the monarchy was restored, and languishing arts and crafts were revived and made known to the world. French policies changed the character of Cambodian society. For example, liberal immigration laws encouraged Chinese and Vietnamese to enter the country and intermarry with Cambodians. Capitalizing on the Cambodian

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traditional distaste for commerce, the Chinese were able to take over many vital functions as merchant brokers, bankers and owners of transport operations and plantations. The Vietnamese gravitated toward shopkeeping, artisanry and clerking in the civil service and French business establishments. The French brought Cambodia into the modern world by abolishing slavery and hereditary bondage, establishing secular schools for both sexes, laying the foundation for a modern bureaucracy, and introducing Western concepts of art, science, law and government. Phnom Penh was laid out on a spacious scale and provided with a port, a road network was created, and a railroad was built, linking Phnom Penh with the Thai border. These Western innovations scarcely touched the peasantry, some eighty percent of the population, who continued to cultivate small family holdings of ten acres or less. They had a direct impact only upon the upper socio-economic levels in the urban areas which formed the pivotal segment that absorbed, adapted and disseminated Western ideas and led the independence movement to its successful culmination.

For all their benefits, the French retarded Cambodian development by running the country themselves and by providing the Cambodians with limited administrative and technical training and experience. The classical education given the elite left them unprepared to handle the practical problems of managing a country. Even today there is a shortage of Cambodians equipped to cope with government administration, economic development, and technical services. Chinese still dominate commerce; most engineers, technicians, and craftsmen are Vietnamese; and foreign advisors are needed to assist in operating complicated machinery.

After the death of King Sisowath Monivong in 1941, the French by-passed his sons, feeling that they were too independence minded. For the throne, they selected instead his 18 year old grandson, Prince Norodom Sihanouk. The French thought Sihanouk would be easy to manipulate, little imagining that he would develop a serious interest in governing Cambodia, would promulgate its constitution in 1947, and would father its independence from France in late 1953.

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After the French defeat in Europe, the Japanese received permission from the Vichy government to send troops to Hanoi and Saigon. The Thai, taking advantage of French weakness, attempted to acquire Cambodian and Laotian territory and invaded Cambodia in January 1941. The Japanese eventually intervened and forced the French to sign a treaty giving Thailand a part of northwestern Cambodia. The French maintained nominal control of Indochina until the spring of 1945 when an unexpected Japanese coup de force removed the entire Vichy French colonial administration. At Japanese suggestion, King Sihanouk proclaimed Cambodia's independence on March 12, but this independence was only nominal since Cambodia was linked with the Japanese Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere. This brief taste of freedom from French control laid the basis for the anti-French movements that characterized Cambodian politics during the first decade following World War II.

The French resumed control in Cambodia after the Japanese surrender, but now Sihanouk began the negotiations designed to achieve a greater degree of independence for the country. In February 1946 the French protectorate was replaced by a new arrangement under which Cambodia was recognized as an autonomous kingdom within the French Union, but with the French retaining considerable control. A Constituent Assembly was elected in September 1946 and in May 1947 the Constitution was promulgated. Both houses of the Cambodian legislature were convened in early 1948 and parliamentary government began. Unfortunately, political instability emerged almost immediately, with several nationalistic groups opposing both French rule and Sihanouk's government. To prevent complete chaos, Sihanouk dissolved the National Assembly in September 1948 and, with the assistance of several ministers, ruled alone for the next two years. Following the September 1951 elections, another period of unstable parliamentary government ensued. In June 1952 Sihanouk again assumed direct rule, exercising this power until February 1955.

While he ruled, Sihanouk concentrated on gaining independence from the French and, in November 1949, obtained a new treaty that gave Cambodia more powers and made her an Associated State within the French Union. Sihanouk became impatient with what he considered French procrastination and began a public campaign against French rule in April 1953. In June he went into voluntary exile in Thailand, refusing to return to the capital until given French assurances of complete independence for Cambodia. The French, mired down in their struggle with the Viet

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Minh, announced in July their willingness to grant independence to Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam. Subsequent negotiations produced several important concessions whereby France relinquished practically all the rights and powers it had retained in Cambodia since the treaty of 1949. The last of these concessions was signed in November 1953, and Sihanouk returned to the capital in triumph to proclaim Cambodia's independence on November 9. International recognition of Cambodia's independence was accorded by the Final Declaration at the Geneva Conference on Indochina on July 21, 1954. At Geneva, it was Sihanouk's diplomatic skill and stubbornness that led to the inclusion of a separate agreement providing for the withdrawal from Cambodia by October 20, 1954 of all Viet Minh forces and French units, except for a training mission. Unlike Vietnam and Laos, Cambodia emerged from the Geneva agreements with no loss of territory.

A nationwide referendum was held in February 1955 as an expression of support for Sihanouk's policies and rule for the previous two and one-half years. Although he received over 99 percent of the vote, Sihanouk abdicated the throne in March in favor of his parents so he could engage more freely in political activity. He immediately began building his own personal political vehicle, the Sangkum (officially, the Sangkum Reastr Niyum or People's Socialist Community). The new National Assembly elected in September was composed entirely of Sangkum members. When his father died in 1960, Sihanouk refused the throne and, instead, consolidated his position by creating and assuming the office of Chief of State which held all the powers of the vacant throne.

Diplomatic relations were maintained exclusively with the Western powers during the early stages of independence, and Sihanouk seriously considered aligning himself with the West. He was strongly influenced by Nehru, however, and gradually developed a policy of neutralism. His first international declaration of nonalignment was at the Afro-Asian Conference at Bandung in April 1955. The National Assembly supported his policy in a vote taken later in the year. Sihanouk's foreign policy was keyed to securing international guarantees, or at least assurances of respect, for Cambodia's territorial integrity. Diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, and Poland were established in 1956. Chinese Communist economic aid was accepted in 1956 and formal recognition of Communist China was finally announced in mid-1958.

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Figure 5. Prince Norodom Sihanouk, former King and former Chief of State of Cambodia. February 1970.

Relations with Thailand and South Vietnam gradually deteriorated after Cambodian independence. With a centuries-old background of mutual suspicion and conflict, matters became worse with sporadic emotional flare-ups over border incidents, disputed territory, and alleged Thai and Vietnamese support to Cambodian subversive groups. Sihanouk broke relations with Thailand in October 1961 and with South Vietnam in August 1963.

In 1963 Cambodia's foreign policy was altered to follow an increasingly pro-Communist line. Sihanouk became convinced that the Communists were going to win an early and decisive victory in South Vietnam and that Communist China eventually would exercise a dominant influence in Southeast Asia. He abruptly terminated all United States economic and military aid programs in November 1963 (since 1955 the U.S. had been the key source of such aid, having extended some \$309.6 million in economic aid and

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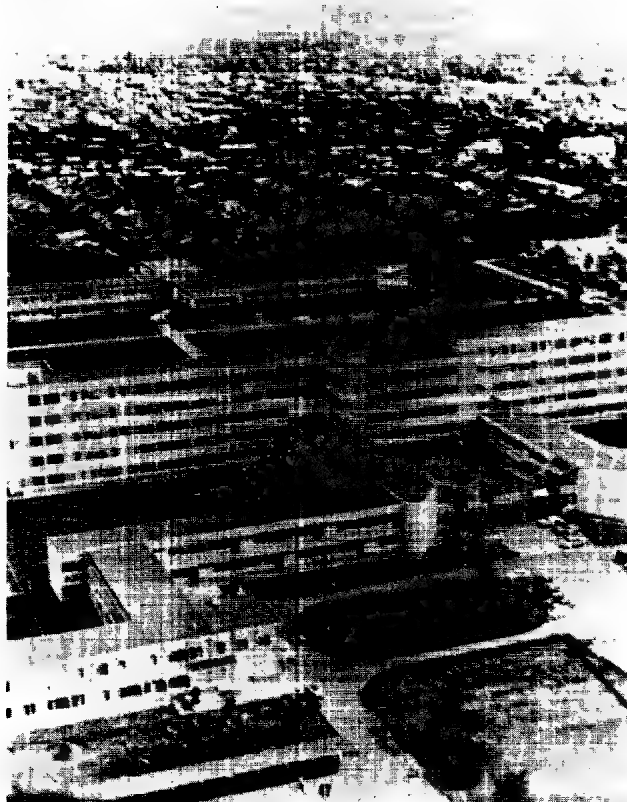


Figure 6. The Khmer-Soviet Friendship Hospital, Phnom Penh, Cambodia. Completed in 1961.

some \$83.7 million in military assistance). Sihanouk then began relying more heavily on France, Communist China and the Soviet Union for assistance, primarily military. They assumed the former U.S. role and increased both their economic and military assistance, to the distress of the many who preferred the United States and who found that the combined assistance from France, China and the Soviet Union scarcely approached what the U.S. had given. At the same time Sihanouk instituted a number of economic "reforms" involving the nationalization of banking and other drastic measures to help compensate for the loss of U.S. economic assistance -- reforms that had disastrous economic consequences. They alienated the elite and made Sihanouk personally responsible for the economic troubles to come.

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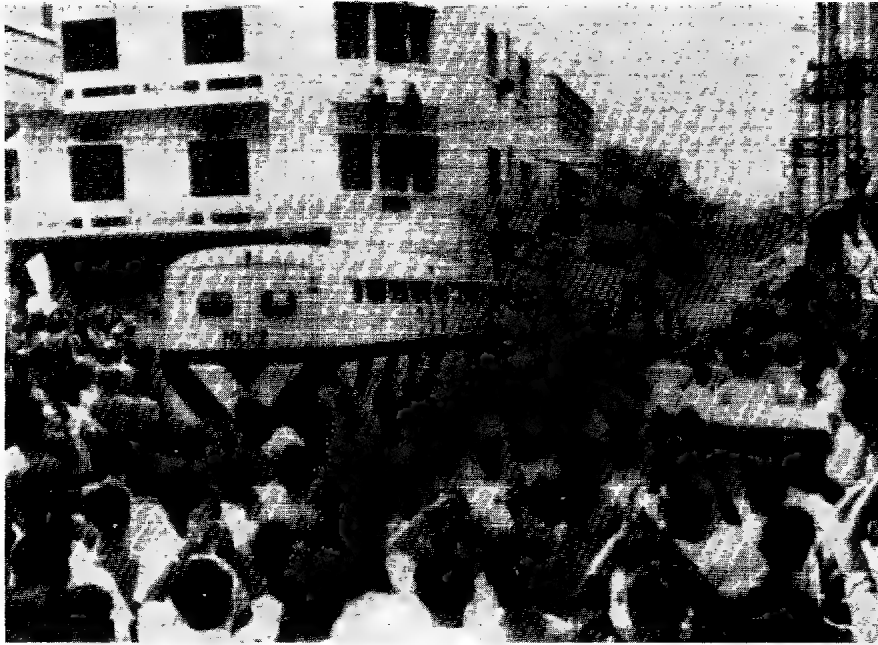


Figure 7. Anti-U.S. demonstration at American Embassy, March 1964. Note U.S. AID police van.

Sihanouk became increasingly a spokesman for the Chinese Communists, possibly in the hope that the Chinese would be able to control the North Vietnamese and keep them from eventually overrunning Cambodia. He supported the Communist line on most major international issues and strongly criticized American policy, particularly in Southeast Asia. Relations with the United States finally were broken in May 1965 and were not resumed until July 1969. Sihanouk may have decided to resume relations because of his concern over the large Vietnamese Communist troop concentrations in Cambodia and because he needed something to help balance off China and the Vietnamese Communists.

Sihanouk continued to maintain very close ties with France and there were correct, if not cordial, relations with a number of other non-Communist countries. Many of the elite objected to the pro-Communist slant of Sihanouk's brand of neutrality, but also recognized that it had kept them out of war, allowing them a period of stability in a turbulent region.

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Figure 8. Prince Norodom Sihanouk reviewing Chinese 16th National Anniversary parade from atop the Tien-An-Men gate in Peking with Mao Tse-Tung, P'en Chen, and Liu Shao-Ch'i. October 1965.

Until his ouster in March 1970, Sihanouk was considered the personification of Cambodia. He had successfully guided the country to independence with a minimum of bloodshed and turmoil, and had managed through guile and hard work to keep the country intact and at peace through a prolonged period of regional instability and war. He adroitly managed to keep the contending royal and personal factions in line, and dominated the entire political scene. All questions of significance were decided by him, either in his role as Chief of State or as head of the Sangkum.

Although there was peace, a number of problems beset the nation. The economy was deteriorating. Insurgent activity, which began in early 1967 in western Cambodia, was slowly spreading. The Vietnamese Communists were increasing their various uses of Cambodian territory. The Cambodians suffered many casualties, caused by retaliatory South Vietnamese and U.S. bombing and shelling.

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Figure 9. Chinese-Communist built plywood factory at Dey Eth. Completed in 1961.



Figure 10. Soviet Ship unloading military weapons for Cambodian forces. Probable MIG-17 related crates on the dock. April 1964.

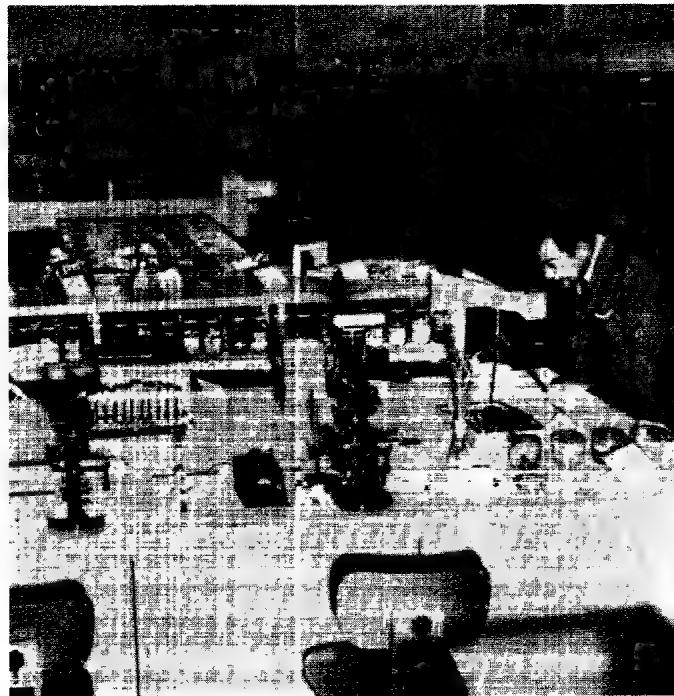


Figure 11. Japanese built and run Technical Agriculture Center at Mongkol Borey. August 1965.



Figure 12. Prince Sihanouk and Charles De Gaulle at parade of racing boats on the Mekong. August 1966.

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Figure 13. Prime Minister Lon Nol, First Deputy Prime Minister Sisowath Sirik Matak, and Yem Sambaur at a government rally. April 1970.

In August 1969 Sihanouk asked General Lon Nol, the Minister of National Defense, to form a new government, primarily to tackle economic problems. Lon Nol chose Prince Sisowath Sirik Matak, who had long opposed Sihanouk's policies, to be his deputy. Sihanouk soon became irritated by Matak's determined and successful attempts to curtail some of his powers. In early January, after losing an apparent political ploy to bring down the Cabinet which had allied with the National Assembly against him, Sihanouk left for medical treatment in France.

Until the present government was formed last August, there was no leader to rally anti-Sihanouk sentiment. Previously, by counterbalancing the conservatives and the leftists, Sihanouk had been able to keep his opponents divided. The leftist forces, in effect, had been purged by Sihanouk since 1967 and no longer provided him the maneuvering room which he had enjoyed in previous political clashes. Many factors contributed to Sihanouk's ouster.

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Lon Nol and Sirik Matak, and other members of the elite, apparently decided that Sihanouk had been too accommodating toward the Vietnamese Communists, and grew alarmed over the increasing Communist use of Cambodia as a sanctuary, staging area and supply route. Another common criticism was the widespread corruption that existed in Sihanouk's entourage. Finally, Sihanouk had dominated Cambodia for 17 years, and many were fed up with him and his autocratic and flamboyant ways.

The anti-Sihanouk forces now found strong leaders in Sirik Matak and Lon Nol. They evidently believed that Sihanouk would try to unseat them when he returned, and decided to move against him. The two leaders used the mounting anti-Vietnamese sentiment in Cambodia as the means to bring him down. They instigated demonstrations against the North Vietnamese and Viet Cong embassies, in violation of Sihanouk's policy of not pushing the Communists too far. The demonstrations got out of hand and the embassies were sacked. In his vehement denunciation of the government and the demonstrations, Sihanouk succeeded only in consolidating the rapidly increasing opposition to him and his policies.

On March 18, 1970 both houses of the Cambodian legislature met at the government's request and voted to withdraw confidence in Sihanouk as Chief of State. National Assembly President, Cheng Heng, was appointed the acting Chief of State, pending elections.

Sihanouk was about to leave Moscow for Peking when he learned that he had been ousted. (Sihanouk had been attempting to persuade the Soviets to persuade the North Vietnamese to reduce their strength in Cambodia, but failed in Moscow and seemed unlikely to succeed on the same task in Peking.) Enraged and humiliated, he flew on to Peking, where he decided to attempt a return to power with Communist support -- readily offered by the Chinese and North Vietnamese.

In speeches on March 23 and May 5, Sihanouk announced that he had "dissolved" the Lon Nol government, the Council of the Kingdom, and the National Assembly. He also announced the formation and establishment of a Royal Government of National Union (RGNU) headed by Penn Nouth, one of his most loyal advisors. His government-in-exile is nominally under the direction of his new political organization, the National United Front of Cambodia (FUNK), of which he is chairman. The formation of a

national liberation army was also announced, and he asked the people to take to the jungle to carry out the struggle against the Lon Nol government and the "U.S. imperialists." He promised arms and ammunition to his supporters.

In Phnom Penh, meanwhile, Lon Nol and Sirik Matak announced that Cambodia would follow the same neutralist policies. The Vietnamese Communists, however, began increasing military pressure on the new regime, forcing it to call upon non-Communist countries, including the U.S., for military assistance. Relations with Thailand and South Vietnam were quickly established, and on April 30th South Vietnam and the United States launched a 60-day offensive into the Communist strongholds in Cambodia.



Figure 14. President Nguyen Van Thieu of South Vietnam meeting with Sirik Matak, Cheng Heng, and Lon Nol. July 1970.

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PART II

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ENVIRONMENT

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S-E-C-R-E-T

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- CAMBODIA

CHAPTER I - THE LAND

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
A. Introduction	1
B. Drainage	2
C. Climate	2
D. Vegetation	9
E. Regions	9
1. Tonle Sap - Mekong Delta Lowland	9
2. Transitional Plains	13
3. Eastern Highlands	16
4. Southwestern Highlands	19
25X1 5. Coastal Lowland	22
F. Factors	24
1. General	24
2. Edible Plantlife	25
3. Fauna	35
a. Food	35
b. Hazards	37
4. Water	44
Table 1 -- Mean Precipitation	46
Reading List	51

Photographs
(Abbreviated Titles)

Figure No.

1 Savanna with scattered trees	5
2 Secondary forest	5
3 Virgin rain forest	6
4 Mangrove swamp	7
5 Rubber plantation in Transitional Plains	8

S-E-C-R-E-T

S-E-C-R-E-T

<u>Figure No.</u>	<u>Page</u>
6 Coastal ricelands	8
7 Land adjacent to SE end of Tonle Sap	10
8 Rice paddies near Sisophon, NW of Tonle Sap	11
9 Ripening rice crop west of Tonle Sap	11
10 Forested phnoms, southern part Transitional Plains	13
11 Savanna in Transitional Plains, south of Chaîne des Dangrek	14
12 Savanna in Transitional Plains, east of Mekong (March)	14
13 Eastern Highlands forest cleared for cultivation	17
14 Forest growth near Labansiek, Eastern Highlands	18
15 Typical terrain in Mondolkiri Province	18
16 Southern end Chaîne de l'Éléphant; coastal plain at right	20
17 Open coniferous forest, Chaîne de l'Éléphant	21
18 Narrow sandy beach near Ream	23
19 Coast on Baie de Kompong Som near Kompong Som (Sihanoukville)	23
20 Breadfruit	25
21 Breadfruit	26
22 Mango	27
23 Papaya	27
24 Bamboo utensils	28
25 Rattan palm	29
26 Nipa palm	30
27 Fiddlehead fern	30
28 Pandanus tree or screw pine	31
29 Pandanus tree or screw pine	32
30 Cassava	33
31 Taro	33
32 Yam	34
33 Cobra	38
34 Krait	39
35 Russell's viper	39
36 Portuguese man-of-war	41
37 Sea urchin	42
38 Obtaining water from a vine	45

S-E-C-R-E-T

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CENTRAL INTELLIGENCE AGENCY
DIRECTORATE OF INTELLIGENCE

SUBJECT: ERRATA (November 1970) INTELLIGENCE HANDBOOK FOR
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October 1970

PART II

Chapter I - The Land

- Pages i and ii: Figures 3 and 6 are transposed: 3
should read "Coastal ricelands"; 6
should read "Virgin rain forest"
- Pages 6 and 8 : Switch captions for Figures 3 and 6
- Page 45 : Figure improperly oriented; view by
turning book counter-clockwise
- Page 51 : Item 8 - Excape should read "Escape"

Chapter IV - Transportation

- Page i : Figure 6 should read "Wet season
view of Route 19"
- Page 6 : Figure 6 caption should read "Wet
season view of Route 19."
- Page ii : Figure 38 should read "Airfield at
Buong Long"
- Figure 39 should read "Airfield at
Virachei"
- Page 39 : Figure 38 caption should read "Air-
field at Buong Long."
- Page 40 : Figure 39 caption should read "Air-
field at Virachei."

Chapter V - Telecommunications

- Page 3 : A portion of the original text, under-
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No Foreign Dissem

That paragraph should read:

For general domestic broadcasting, Cambodia has one radio station (known as Chaîne Nationale) located in the Phnom Penh area and a rebroadcast station located in Battambang. "Chaîne Nationale" uses two Philips transmitters which were purchased in April 1964 to replace two older transmitters obtained from Communist China. Since 1967, the modern Philips transmitters (a 120-kilowatt (kw) medium wave set and a 50-kw short-wave set) have been broadcasting the national network programs and the two Chinese transmitters (a 15-kw short-wave set and a 20-kw medium wave set) have been used for international broadcasting.

Chapter I - Armed Forces

References to Military Regions (MR's) which appear in this Chapter (and in the APPENDIX under the title MILITARY REGIONS/PROVINCES) should be corrected as follows:

- Page 2 : Footnote should read "From 1968 to May 1970 there were six MR's. By about May 1970, MR VI had been dissolved, and by August MR V was operating out of Phnom Penh on a skeleton staff basis."
- Figure 2 : (following page 2) - Delete footnote "dissolved mid 1970" and reference to "HQ. Stung Treng" in box titled Military Region V.
- APPENDIX : Military Regions V and VI (Dissolved) should read Military Region V

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[REDACTED] - CAMBODIA

CHAPTER I -- THE LAND
(January 1970)

A. Introduction

Cambodia is a compact country of about 67,000 square miles, slightly smaller in area than the State of Washington. It extends about 360 miles from west to east (102°20'E to 107°40'E) and about 280 miles from north to south (14°35'N to 10°25'N). The straight-line distance from the capital, Phnom Penh, to the nearest point on the South Vietnam border is only about 40 miles. Cambodia's boundaries extend approximately 1,600 miles -- with Thailand on the west and northwest, Laos on the northeast, and South Vietnam on the east, southeast, and south. To the southwest, an irregular coastline of some 400 miles provides access to the Gulf of Thailand.

Each of Cambodia's several terrain regions has physical features [REDACTED]

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[REDACTED]. The Tonle Sap-Mekong Delta Lowland (Region 1), the political and economic heart of the nation, is low-lying and intensively cultivated plain which surrounds the Tonle Sap (Great Lake)* and extends along the Mekong Delta to the South Vietnam border. Ninety percent of Cambodia's people live in this region. The Transitional Plains (Region 2), adjoin Region 1, extending westward and northward to the Thai frontier and eastward across the Mekong. This thinly forested, sparsely populated, and better drained region contains scattered hills. The Transitional Plains merge in the east with the generally heavily forested and sparsely peopled Eastern Highlands (Region 3) along the South Vietnam and Laos borders. Vietnamese Communist forces, operating in the neighboring highlands of South Vietnam, use this upland region for sanctuary and their

* In this study the term Tonle Sap refers only to the lake of that name; the stream through which Tonle Sap waters are discharged into the Mekong River is designated the Tonle Sap River.

S-E-C-R-E-T

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supply routes crisscross parts of the region. The Southwestern Highlands (Region 4), a rugged, densely forested, and largely uninhabited mountainous tract, occupy much of the land between the Tonle Sap and the Gulf of Thailand. The region is largely unknown and contains the most extensive stand of virgin rain forest in Indochina. The Coastal Lowland (Region 5), a heavily wooded and moderately populated coastal strip of varying width, is isolated from the rest of the country by the mountains of the Southwestern Highlands.

B. Drainage

Rivers on the seaward slopes of the mountains in the Southwestern Highlands drain into the Gulf of Thailand; elsewhere, streams empty into either the Tonle Sap drainage system or the Mekong River. From October to June the Tonle Sap waters empty into the Mekong; this flow is reversed during the rainy season (mid-May--early October). The floodwaters of the Mekong surge northwestward into the Tonle Sap, extending its area from a dry-season minimum of some 1,200 square miles to a rainy-season maximum of more than 3,000 square miles. Maximum depths in the lake increase from about 7 feet to more than 35 feet. During the rainy season, streams that may be only trickles in the dry months become torrential and laden with silt. The small ponds of the Tonle Sap-Mekong Delta Lowland that are not swallowed by the expanding waters of the Tonle Sap may coalesce to form large lakes.

C. Climate

Cambodia's climate is characterized by a monsoonal circulation with marked seasonal changes in prevailing wind direction. From mid-May into early October, generally strong winds flow out of the southwest. Cloudiness is variable, precipitation is slight, and humidity is low. Between the monsoon seasons the weather is transitional; winds are variable in both intensity and direction.

Temperatures are high throughout the year. Mean daily temperatures in degrees Fahrenheit (at six weather stations) range from maximums of from 96 to 74, and

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minimums of from 77 to 59. During the spring transitional season, however -- just before the onset of the southwest monsoon rains -- temperatures are generally a few degrees higher than during other seasons. At this time they reach the middle 90's in the lowlands, but rarely exceed 100 degrees. Lowest temperatures occur during the period of least precipitation (November to March). In the lowlands they may rise only into the middle or upper 80's; upland temperatures are somewhat lower. Daily minimum temperatures in both lowlands and uplands are generally 15 to 20 degrees lower than maximums.

Rainfall varies considerably throughout the country -- from upwards of 200 inches annually on some parts of the coast (Bokor -- 182 inches annually) and seaward slopes of the Southwestern Highlands, which receive the brunt of the rain-laden winds of the southwest monsoon, to as little as 50 inches in the rain shadow* on the lowlands north and east of the Southwestern Highlands (Table 2). A climatic station on the coast near Kam-pot, for example, has recorded more than 80 inches of rain in a single month, while Phnom Penh, in the rain shadow, receives a mean yearly rainfall of only 54.8 inches. Stations farther north in the plains, away from the rain shadow, receive somewhat greater yearly rainfall, generally between 70 and 80 inches. The southwestern slopes of the Eastern Highlands receive well over 100 inches of rain annually, while slopes facing the northeast receive considerably less.

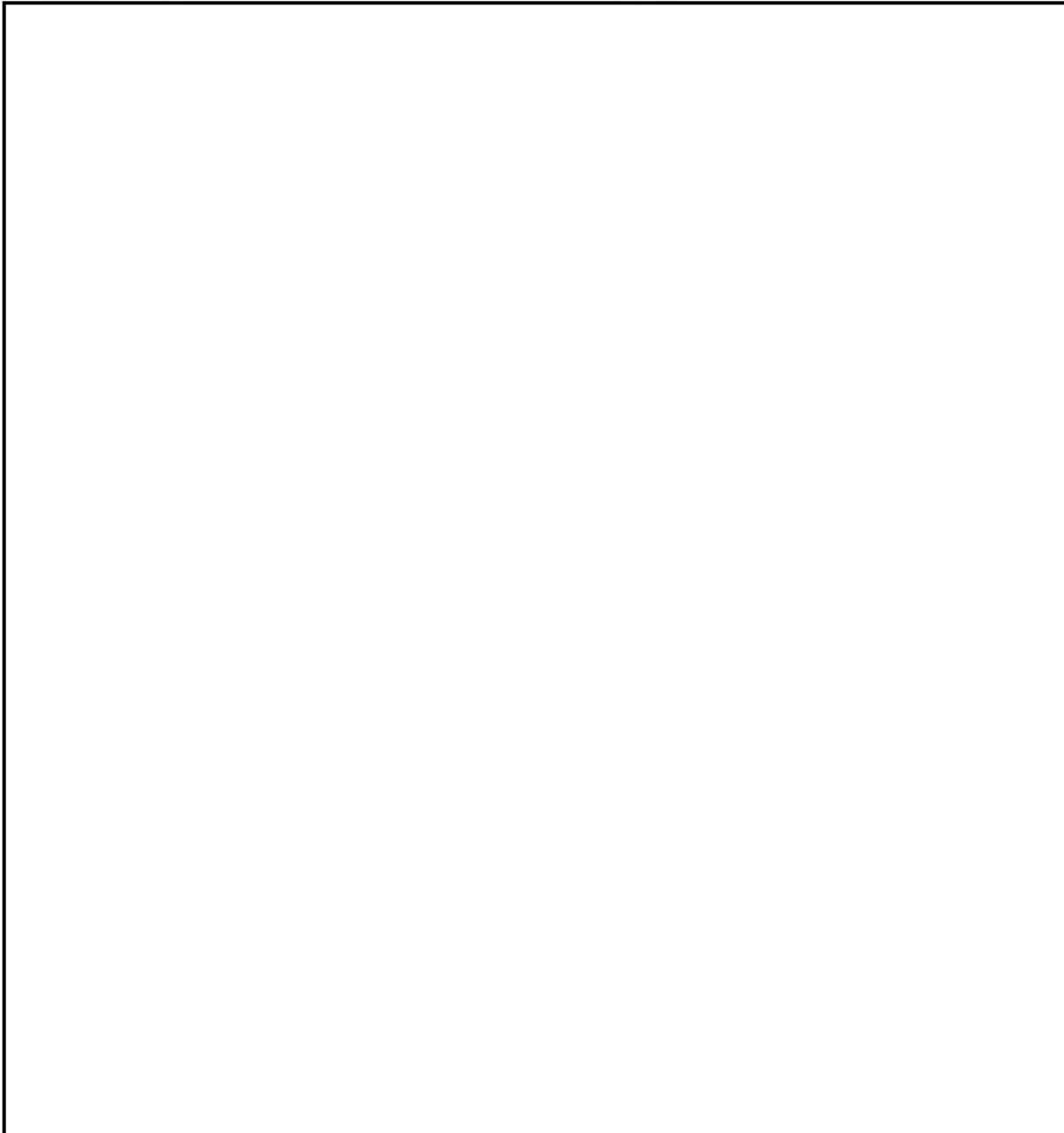
Although it may rain at any time, between 70 and 80 percent of the total annual rainfall coincides with the southwest monsoon; during January and February -- the driest months of the year -- precipitation may be reduced to only a trace. The torrential downpours of the southwest monsoon are preceded by the "mango rains"*** -- the scattered and generally light showers

* A rain shadow is an area that receives relatively light rainfall because a terrain feature shelters it from prevailing rainbearing winds.

** So called because they create almost overnight growth of plants, including mangos, in the forests.

S-E-C-R-E-T

that break the dry spell in late March or early April. Thunderstorm activity -- including violent rains, gusty winds, lightning, and hail -- peaks early during the southwest monsoon, and then tapers off with less frequent and less intense storms continuing into October. Such storms most commonly occur in late afternoon or early evening, seldom in the morning.



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Figure 1. Savanna with scattered trees. This type of vegetation prevails on the plains between the Tonle Sap-Mekong Delta Lowland and the fringing mountains.



Figure 2. Secondary forest. This densely tangled undergrowth quickly sprouts after slash-and-burn plots have been abandoned.

S-E-C-R-E-T

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Figure 3. Virgin rain forest. These tall and densely canopied growths blanket many of the seaward slopes of the Southwestern Highlands. The floors of such forests bear surprisingly little undergrowth.

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Figure 4. Mangrove swamps defy penetration by man.

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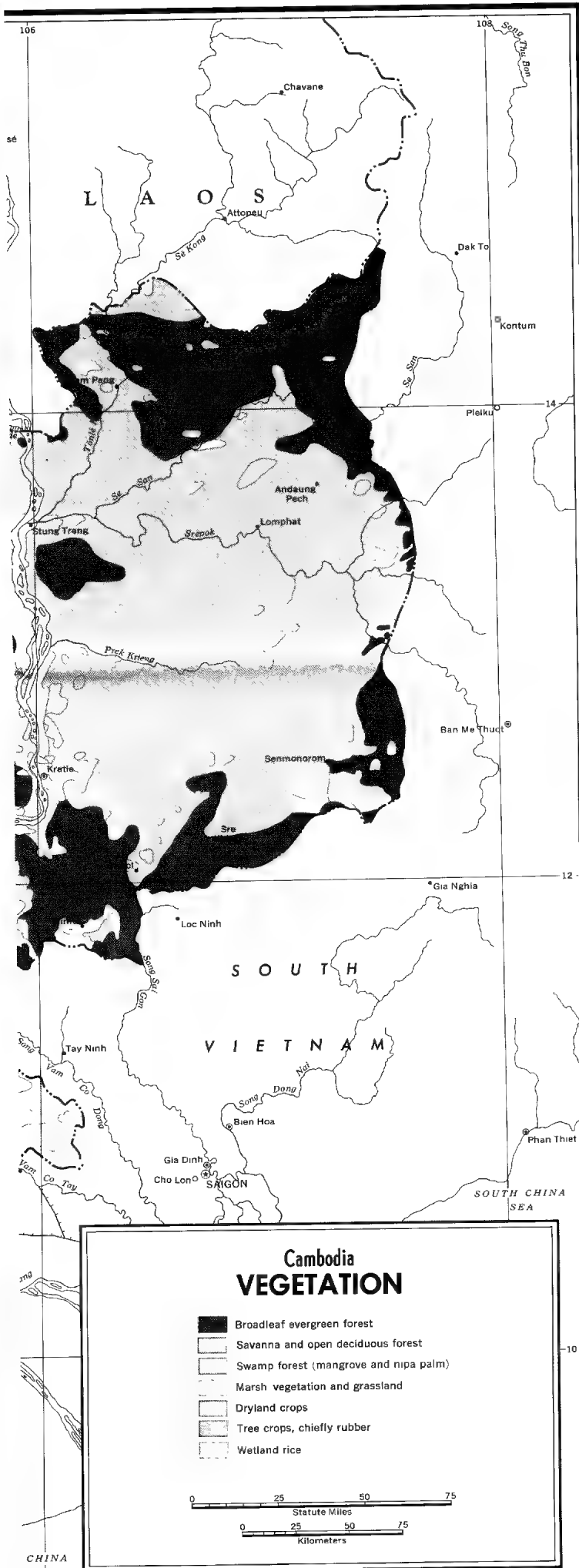


Figure 5. Rubber plantation in Transitional Plains, near South Vietnam border.



Figure 6. Coastal ricelands.

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D. Vegetation

About 80 percent of Cambodia is forested. Vegetation includes stunted deciduous trees scattered in the savannas of the plains, jungles of secondary broad-leaf evergreen growths interspersed with patches cleared for slash-and-burn farming in the eastern and southwestern mountains, towering virgin rain forests on the more remote seaward slopes of the southwestern mountains, ribbons of impenetrable mangrove forests along more sheltered coastal stretches, and rubber trees on the large plantations in the eastern uplands and on the southeastern parts of the plains. Most of the non-forested area is cultivated -- principally by producers of wetland rice in the Mekong Delta and around the shores of the Tonle Sap.

E. Regions

1. Tonle Sap-Mekong Delta Lowland

The heavily populated Tonle Sap-Mekong Delta Lowland is characterized by low elevations -- considerably less than 50 feet above sea level -- and poor drainage. Up to one-third of the region is inundated to various depths during the rainy season, and a smaller area is under water at all times. Only on its fringes does an occasional low hill break the monotony of the horizon.

Immediately adjacent to the Tonle Sap is a wide belt of water-resistant forest; interspersed with mudflats and patches of marsh grass, this belt is inundated during the rainy season. Elsewhere on the plain around the Tonle Sap and throughout the Mekong Delta, rice paddies -- mixed with tracts of tall grass and reeds, thinly wooded stands, and fields of dry crops -- dominate the landscape. Individual ricefields, which range up to 5 acres in size, are separated from each other by earthen dikes that are up to 2 feet high and 2 feet wide. Rice is planted soon after the arrival of the monsoon rains and is harvested in November or December, when it has attained a height of about 4 feet. Water depths in the ricefields may exceed 1 foot during the growing season; they diminish toward

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the end of the rainy season, and the fields are dry by the time the crop is harvested. After the harvest, most fields are left fallow with stubble, and soils become desiccated. A few of the fields in the delta, however, are planted to dry crops -- mostly maize -- after the rice crop has been gathered, and they are then harvested prior to the beginning of the next rainy season.

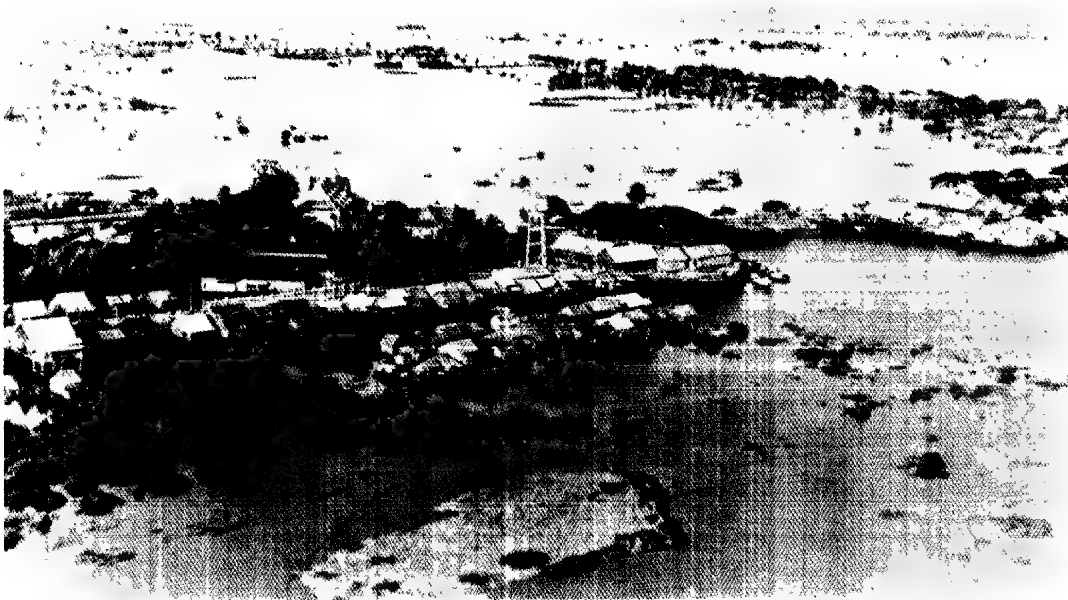


Figure 7. Land adjacent to Tonle Sap during rainy season.

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Figure 8. Rice paddies near Sisophon, northwest of Tonle Sap.



Figure 9. Ripening rice crop near Battambang, west of Tonle Sap.

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2. Transitional Plains

This thinly settled region is characterized by terrain and vegetation that are transitional between the low-lying, poorly drained, and intensively cultivated Tonle Sap-Mekong Delta Lowland and the often rugged and densely forested mountains of the east and southwest. The terrain is flat to undulating, with prevailing elevations several hundred feet above sea level. It is interrupted in places, however, by densely forested hills (called phnoms) that may rise steeply to 1,000 feet above the adjacent plain. Such hills vary in shape and size. Some are sharp pinnacles no more than a mile in diameter; others are flat-topped mesas that extend for several miles. Some of the limestone hills between Battambang (Region 1) and the Thai border are honeycombed with caves.

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Figure 10. Densely forested phnoms in southern part of Transitional Plains.

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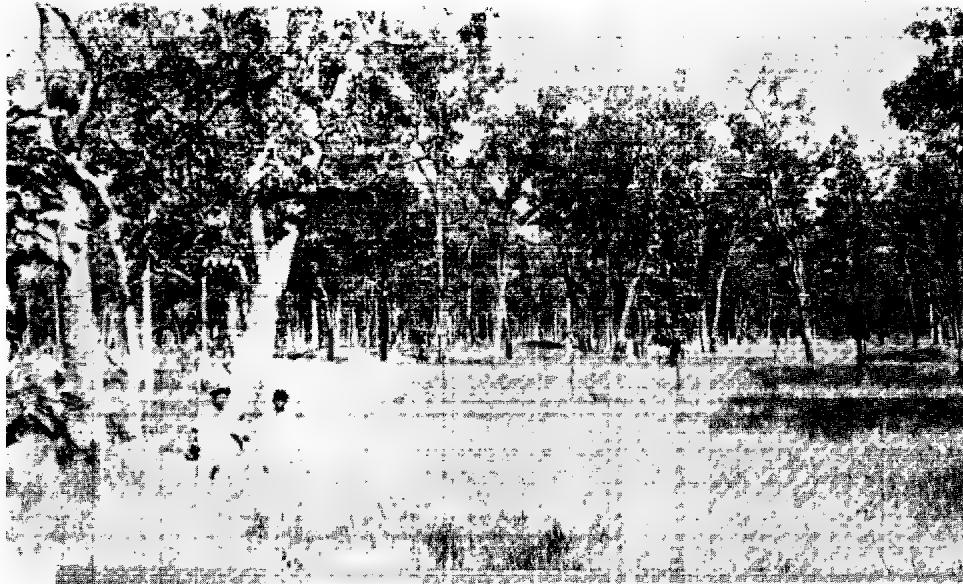


Figure 11. Savanna with scattered deciduous trees in Transitional Plains south of the Chaîne des Dangrek.



Figure 12. Savanna in Transitional Plains east of the Mekong during latter part of dry season (March).

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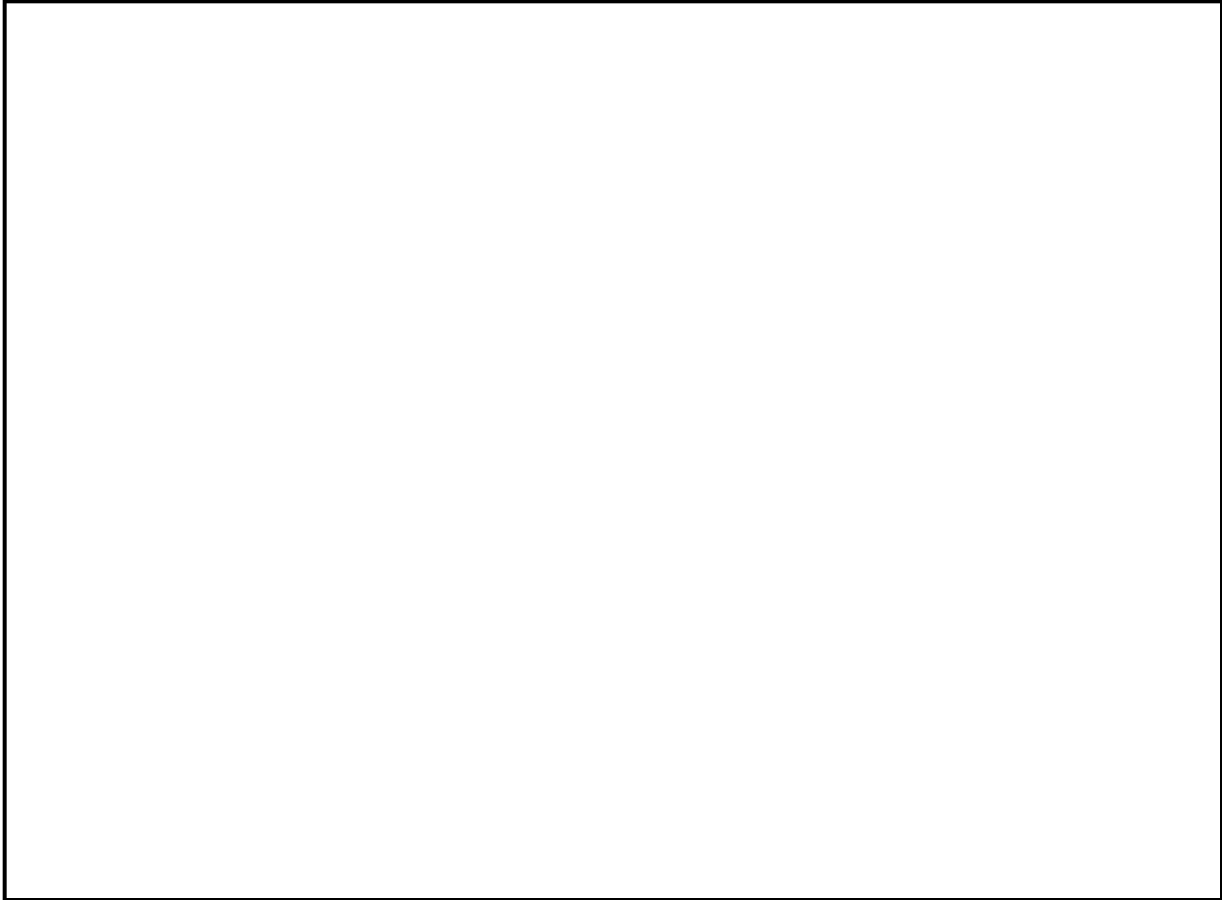
Savanna, with grass up to 5 feet high, forms the prevailing vegetation. Deciduous trees and shrubs are scattered. In places, the trees are closely spaced and have continuous canopies; elsewhere, they may be hundreds of feet apart. They shed their leaves for varying periods from mid-November to mid-March; during the last weeks of this period the landscape is parched -- trees are leafless, grass is brown, and hundreds of fires burn across the savanna. The fires are ignited by farmers to permit the growth of new, more palatable grasses for their cattle. In addition, the fires roast such edible animal life as rodents, tortoises, and lizards and provide a source of food. The smoke enshrouds the region until the "mango rains" arrive in late March or early April to clear the air and revitalize the dormant vegetation. Broadleaf evergreen forests prevail on the scattered hills of the region and along stream valleys, where they form jungled ribbons that meander across the savanna. The savanna also is broken by densely forested spurs of the peripheral uplands that jut fingerlike into it. A few cultivated tracts, planted mostly to rice, are concentrated near the rivers.

More than 200 miles of the northern boundary of this region is formed by the Chaîne des Dangrek, which also forms part of the Thailand-Cambodia border. A southward-facing, heavily dissected cliff covered with dense evergreen forest rises steeply some 600 to 1,800 feet above the adjacent Cambodian plains. The range slopes more gradually northward to the Khorat Plateau of northeast Thailand. Only one (dry-season) road crosses it, but the cart tracks that traverse the water gaps may be jeepable in the dry season.

Unlike the Tonle Sap-Mekong Delta Lowland, little flooding occurs in this region to deter cross-country movement by wheeled vehicles. Soggy ground, however, which prevails locally during part of the rainy season, may limit such movement to vehicles with 4-wheel drive. The restrictions imposed by the vegetation on the cross-country vehicular travel vary seasonally. Grass and shrubs, which form no more than a thin stubble cover by the end of the dry season and readily permit such travel, may reach heights of several feet by the end of the rainy season and discourage movement by all wheeled vehicles. Numerous densely jungled stream valleys would further hinder vehicular travel at all seasons. Foot travel would be little affected at any time by weather or vegetation.

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3. Eastern Highlands

The lightly populated Eastern Highlands, part of a vast dissected plateau region that extends into neighboring Laos and South Vietnam, consist of three blocks of mountainous or hilly terrain separated one from another by broad rolling river valleys of the westward-flowing Se San and Srepok. The headwaters of both rivers rise in the adjoining uplands of South Vietnam, and their courses have served as supply routes, via Cambodia, of Communist forces across the border. In the north -- between the Laotian border and the Se San -- terrain is higher and more rugged than in the rest of the region with steep slopes rising from narrow valleys to peaks up to nearly 5,000 feet in elevation. Elsewhere, terrain is characterized by rounded hills with generally moderate slopes. The highest peak (Phnom Nam Lyr, a Communist base in the southeastern part of

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the region, 2 miles from the South Vietnam border) is 3,537 feet above sea level; few summits are more than 2,000 feet above adjacent valley floors.

Vegetation is varied. There are extensive tracts of open deciduous forests and grasslands, particularly in Mondolkiri Province, in the southern half of the region. Broadleaf evergreen forests prevails at higher elevations and comprises a patchwork of tracts in different stages of growth. Plots cleared for slash-and-burn cultivation form enclaves within jungles of secondary growths, which may attain heights of more than 100 feet, are characterized by their often impenetrable undergrowths of vines, rattans, palms, bamboos, and assorted woody and herbaceous ground plants. The undergrowth of the deciduous forests, in contrast, most commonly consists of tall grass and scattered shrubs.



Figure 13. Eastern Highlands forest cleared for cultivation.

Although the grass may be too high during much of the year for wheeled vehicles, the hills of Mondolkiri Province are suitable for most cross-country movement, as are the more open stands of deciduous forest on the

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lower, drier slopes of the region. Elsewhere, generally dense vegetation and some steep slopes would bar all vehicular movement. Cross-country foot movement is possible in any part of the region, but the steep slopes along the Laotian frontier may make such movement extremely arduous. Communist personnel have traversed this area en route to South Vietnam, stopping at several rest areas along the way. Dense vegetation -- particularly the extensive tracts of secondary forest -- would be the major deterrent to foot travel in most of the rest of the region.

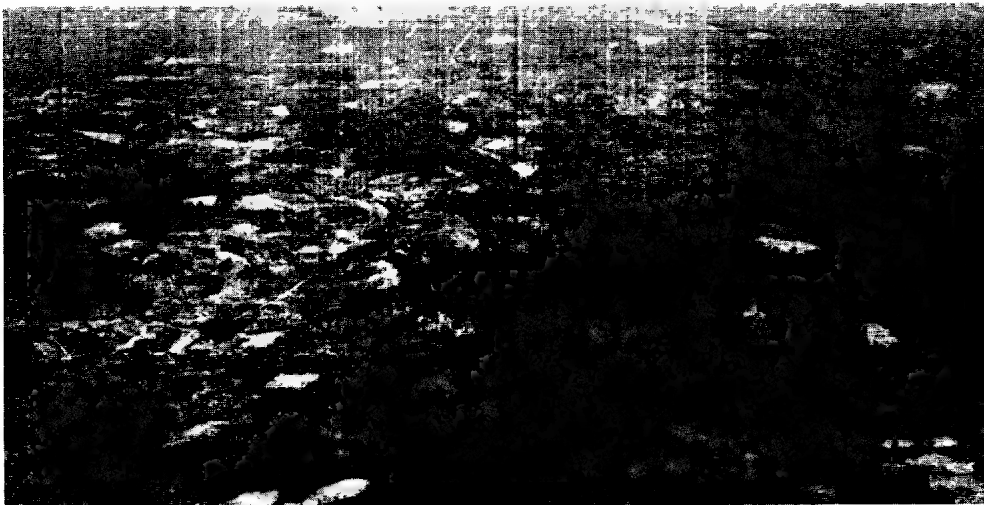


Figure 14. Forest growth near Labansiek in Eastern Highlands. White plots are slash-and-burn clearings.

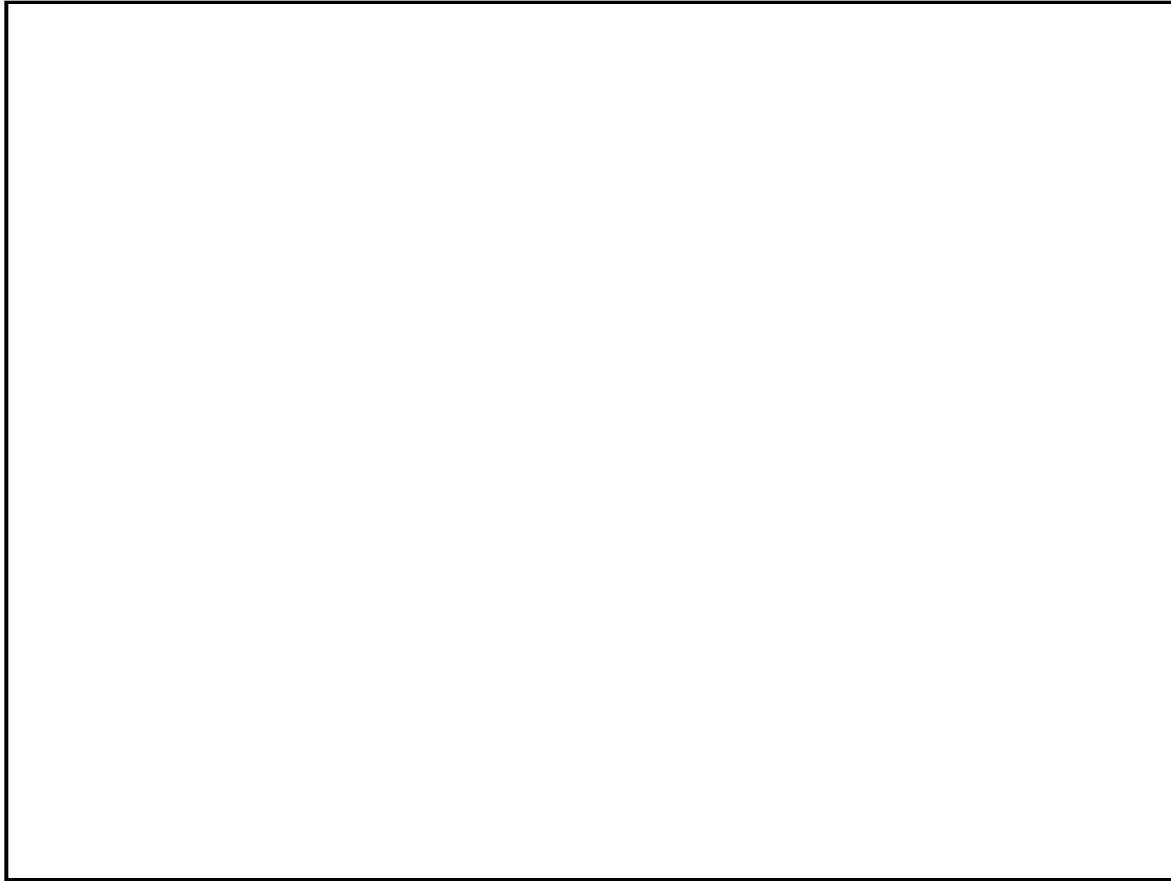


Figure 15. Typical rolling, grassy terrain in Mondolkiri Province.

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4. Southwestern Highlands

The remote and little-known Southwestern Highlands comprise two distinct upland blocks. In the north the rugged and largely uninhabited Chaîne des Cardamomes trends southeast-northwest for nearly 150 miles. Several peaks top 5,000 feet; Phnom Aural (5,810 feet) at the eastern end of the chain is the highest point in Cambodia. No major passes cross the chain. In the southeast the lower, less rugged, but equally sparsely peopled Chaîne de l'Éléphant is aligned generally north-south for some 75 miles. This chain is halved by a broad pass at an elevation well under 1,000 feet. The pass is traversed by the US-financed Khmer-American Friendship Highway, which links the port of Sihanoukville with Phnom Penh. No major road taps any other part of the Southwestern Highlands.

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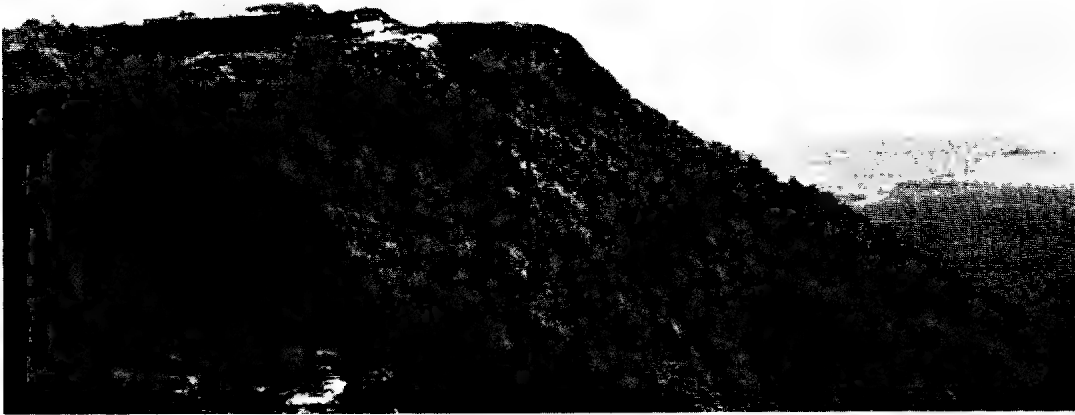


Figure 16. Southern end of Chaîne de l'Éléphant, with narrow coastal plain at right.

Much of the Cardamomes, particularly the rain-drenched seaward slopes, is blanketed with virgin rain forest. Heavily buttressed trees up to 3 1/2 feet in diameter tower to heights of more than 150 feet. Canopies are dense, little sunlight reaches the forest floor, and undergrowth is sparse. Elsewhere in the Cardamomes and throughout most of the Chaîne de l'Éléphant, lower but more profuse secondary growths similar to those of the Eastern Highlands prevail. Open forests of pine and other conifers occupy some of the higher slopes, deciduous forests fringe interior margins of the region, fields of wetland rice are sprinkled along the lower sectors of some of the broader valleys, and slash-and-burn fields are scattered throughout the secondary forest.

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Figure 17. Open coniferous forest in Chaîne de l'Eléphant.

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5. Coastal Lowland

Cambodia's coastline varies; only between Kampot and the South Vietnam border does the Coastal Lowland merge with the interior plains. Transportation into the interior is relatively well developed in this sector [REDACTED]

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[REDACTED] Around the Baie de Kompong Som the lowlands extend inland for 25 miles or more. Elsewhere, mountains may extend almost to the sea. At the southern end of the Chaîne de l'Eléphant, for example, the lowland is only a mile or so wide. West of the Baie de Kompong Som, it is narrow and interrupted by numerous hilly spurs of the Chaîne des Cardamomes.

Settlement is more dense than in the Southwestern Highlands. Villages extend along the more hospitable segments of the shore, frequently where rivers flow into the sea. Between the Baie de Kompong Som and the Thai border, the region is remote and untapped by roads, and communication with the rest of the country is blocked by the neighboring mountains. Several large and numerous small islands lie a few miles offshore. Most are hilly, densely forested, and sparsely inhabited. The larger islands have well-sheltered coves with sandy beaches [REDACTED]

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The vegetation of the Coastal Lowland is a continuation of that of the adjacent slopes of the Southwestern Highlands -- a mixture of virgin and secondary broadleaf evergreen forests interspersed with small cultivated patches. Only in the east, where the Coastal Lowland merges with the interior plains, do cultivated fields prevail. Some coastal vegetation is distinctive. Where the shores are well protected from the winds -- at the heads of bays and along tidal estuaries -- nearly impenetrable evergreen mangrove forests occupy coastal strips that are up to several hundred yards wide. These growths, characterized by a dense network of trunks and aerial roots, are inundated up to several feet at high tide. Commonly associated with the mangrove forests along their inland margins are equally dense growths of nipa palms -- trees with horizontal trunks buried in the mud, from which closely spaced fronds grow vertically to heights of 20 feet. The nipas have usually been thinned out near populated areas, as the fronds are used

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for roofing material. Along less sheltered coastal stretches, particularly between the Baie de Kompong Som and the South Vietnam border, the broadleaf evergreen forests prevalent in the interior extend to the sea or may back narrow sandy beaches sprinkled with coconut palms and pinelike casuarina trees.



Figure 18. Narrow sandy beach near Ream.



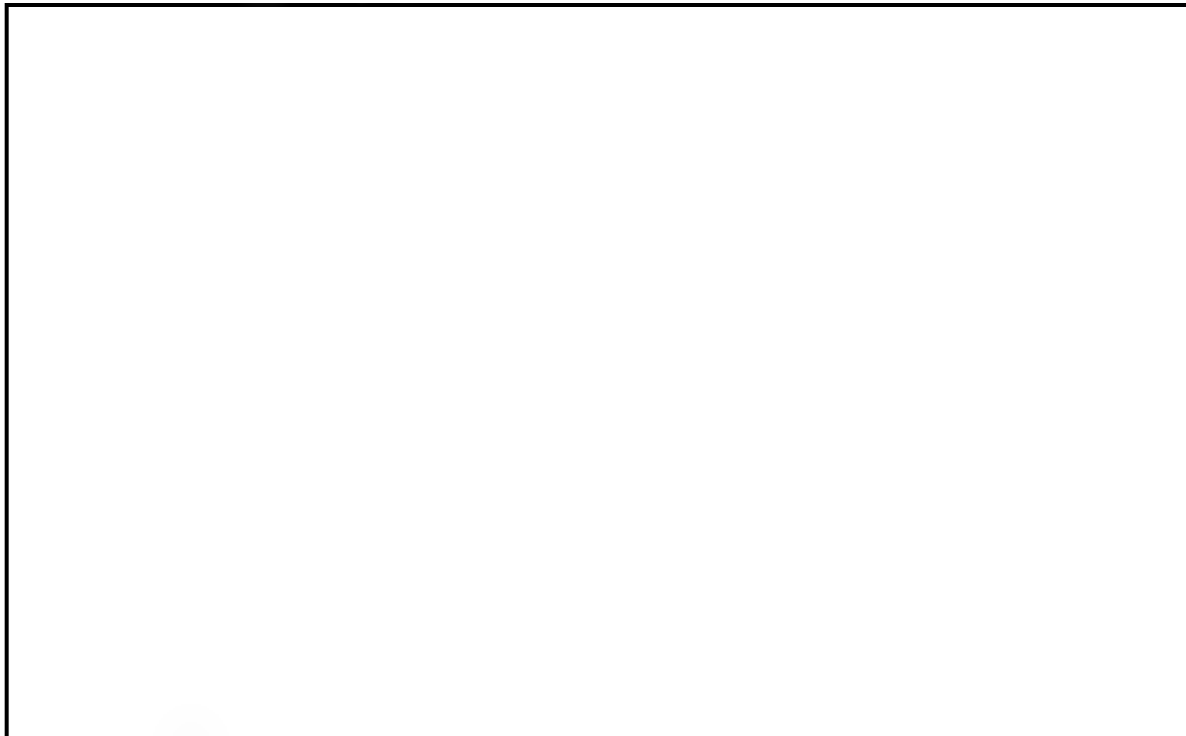
Figure 19. Sector of coast on Baie de Kompong Som near Kompong Som.

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Because roads are lacking and waterways are numerous, small shallow-draft boats provide the best means of transport into the forested lowlands, The rivers are navigable only to the mountains, however, and would not provide through routes into the interior. The dense forests and soggy soils throughout the Coastal Lowland would preclude vehicular and foot cross-country movement. Travel between villages is mostly along the coasts by small native boats.

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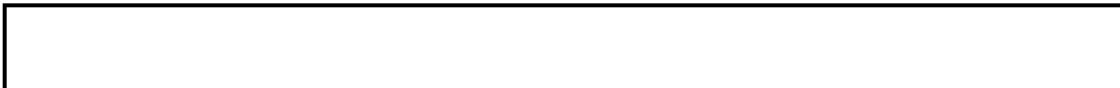
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F.



1. General

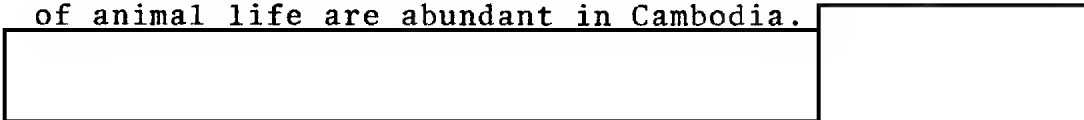
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Plant food and various forms of animal life are abundant in Cambodia.

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2. Edible Plantlife

Although an abundance of edible plantlife, cultivated and wild, is present in most parts of Cambodia, individuals unfamiliar with tropical plants may have difficulty in distinguishing poisonous and nonpoisonous species. Among the more plentiful and edible fruits are the breadfruit, jackfruit, durian, mango, mangosteen, papaya, rambutan, and banana. Most of these fruits ripen during the rainy season:



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Figure 20. Breadfruit.



Figure 21. Breadfruit.

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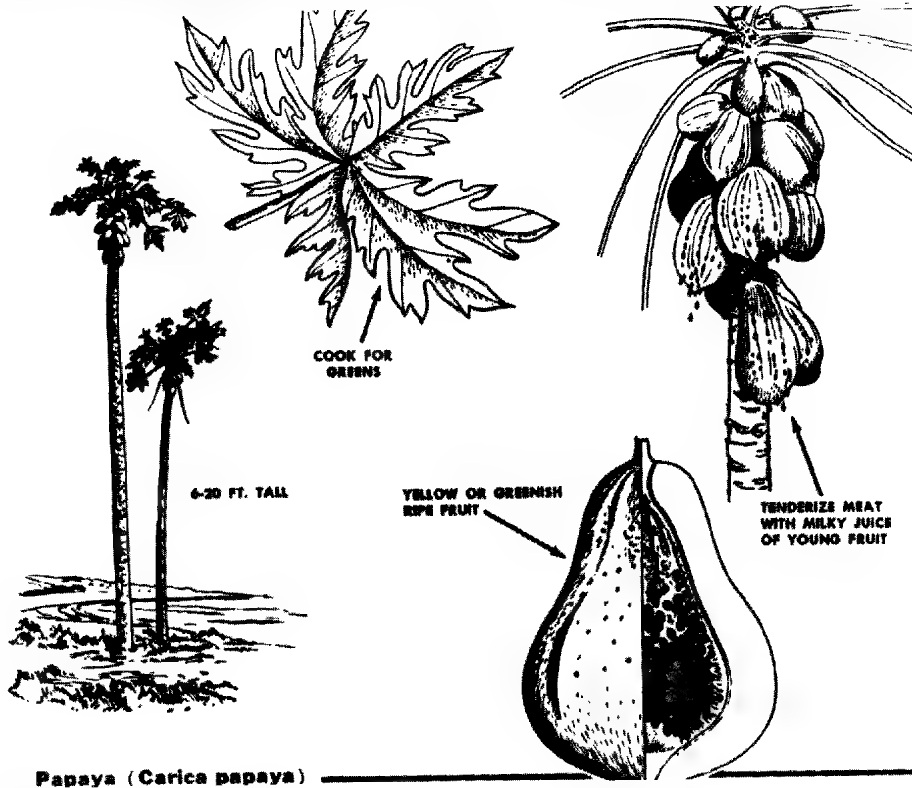
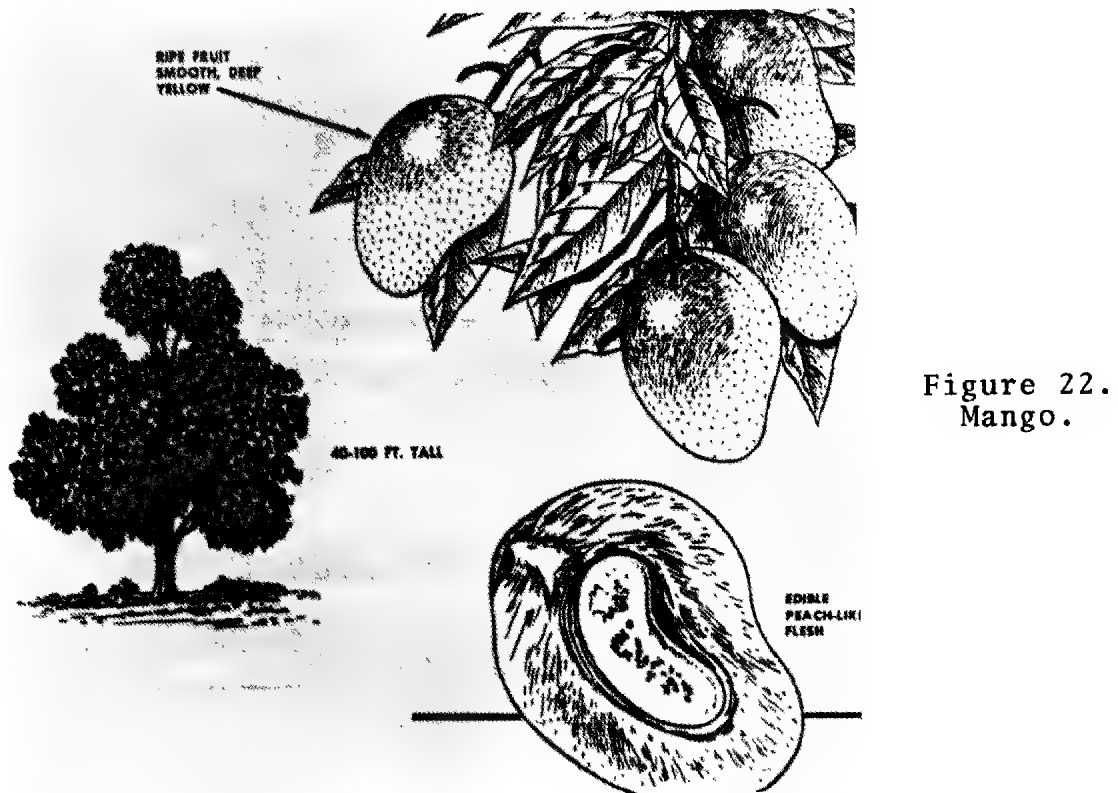


Figure 23. Papaya.

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Tender, young bamboo shoots are an excellent source of food, and may be combined with other foods in salads, stews, or soups. The tough outer shields encasing the shoots must be removed before cooking. The stalk of the mature bamboo can be used to fashion cooking and eating utensils. The shoots of the climbing rattan palm are edible, as are those of various other trees and shrubs. The young unopened buds of wild sugarcane are edible if cooked, and the stems, roots, and young shoots can be peeled and consumed raw. Seeds of coniferous trees -- most common at higher elevations -- are tasty, nutritious, and easy to extract if the cones are heated.



Figure 24. Bamboo utensils.

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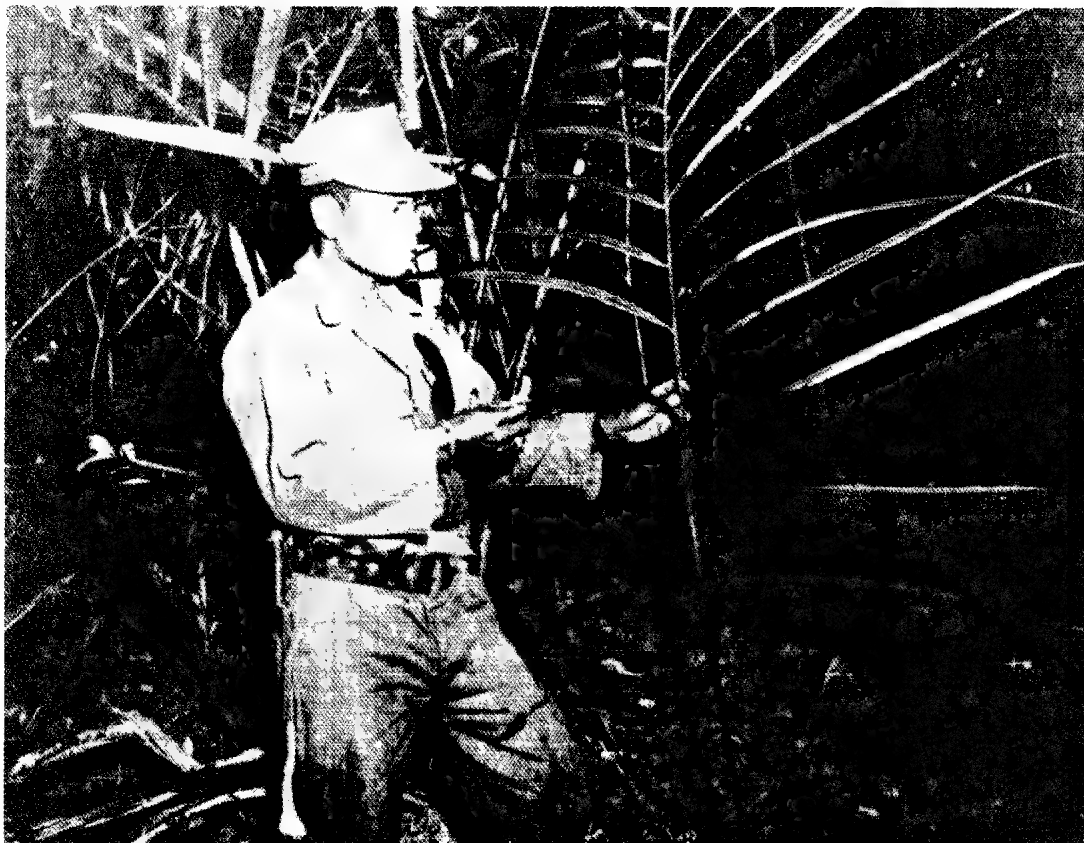


Figure 25. Rattan palm.

Along the sandy beaches and on some of the interior plains, palms are a good source of food. In addition to the fruit they produce (coconuts and dates), the soft interiors of the trunks of many palms can be eaten when boiled or roasted. Picking the fruit of the coconut palm may pose a problem, however, because of the height of the tree, and the removal of the husk and the opening of the shell may be difficult for one who does not have a heavy knife. The seeds (dates) of the nipa palm -- found along coastal inlets adjacent to the mangrove forests -- are edible. Young seeds, which ripen in the rainy season, should be boiled for a few minutes; mature seeds are usually too hard to eat.

The inner bark and terminal buds of many other trees also are edible, and the inner bark of coniferous trees is a particularly good source of sustenance. A wide variety of edible ferns abounds in moist shady places and, although low in food value, when eaten with other foods would help to sustain life.

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Figure 26.
Nipa palm.



Figure 27. Fiddlehead fern.

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The pandanus tree (screw pine), which grows in sandy coastal areas and in moist interior locations, produces pineapplelike clusters of fruit. This fruit, including the seeds, may be eaten raw when it is yellow and breaking apart; when unripe it should be wrapped in leaves and roasted.



Figure 28. Pandanus tree or screw pine.

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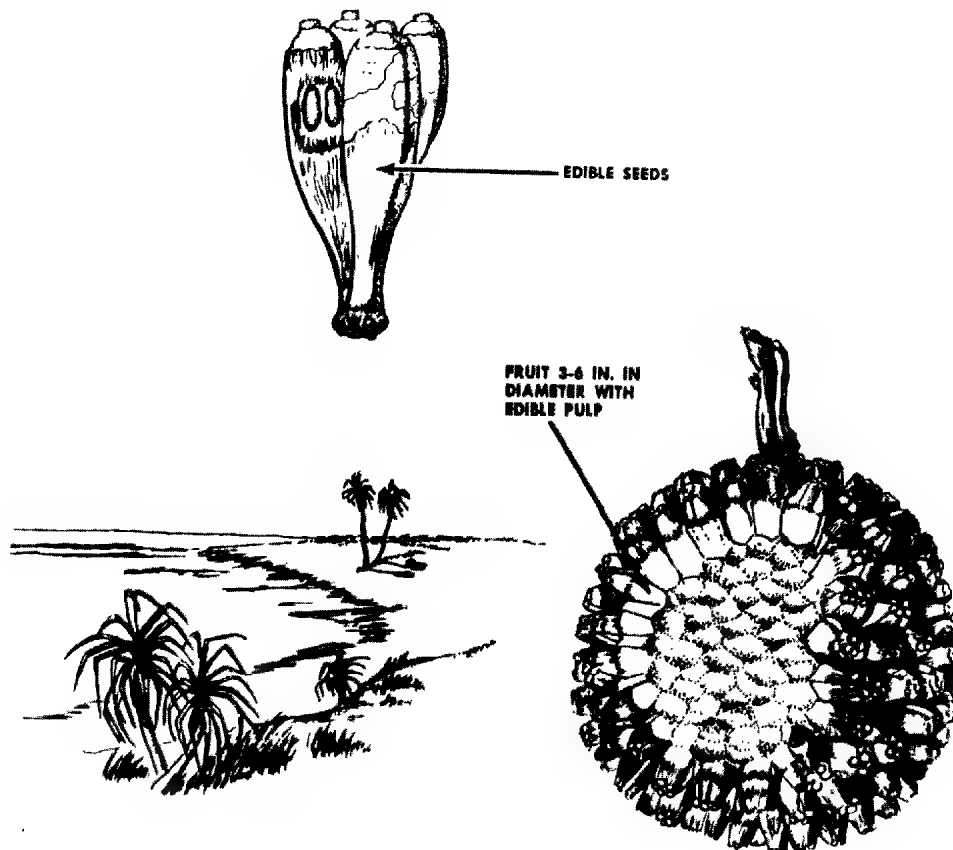


Figure 29. Pandanus tree or screw pine.

A number of plants in moist, forested areas have edible -- and often tasty -- tuberous roots. They include arrowroot, cassava, taro, and yams. None should be eaten raw because they may contain toxic ingredients that are removed only by cooking. Cassava, for example, contains poisonous hydrocyanic acid. The tubers should be cut into thin slices, crushed, and cooked in several changes of water. Various types of fungi such as mushrooms, puffballs, and wood fungi also grow in damp wooded areas -- on the ground, on decaying trees, or on termite mounds. Many are edible, but all should be avoided since some are poisonous and all are low in food value.

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Figure
30.
Cassava.

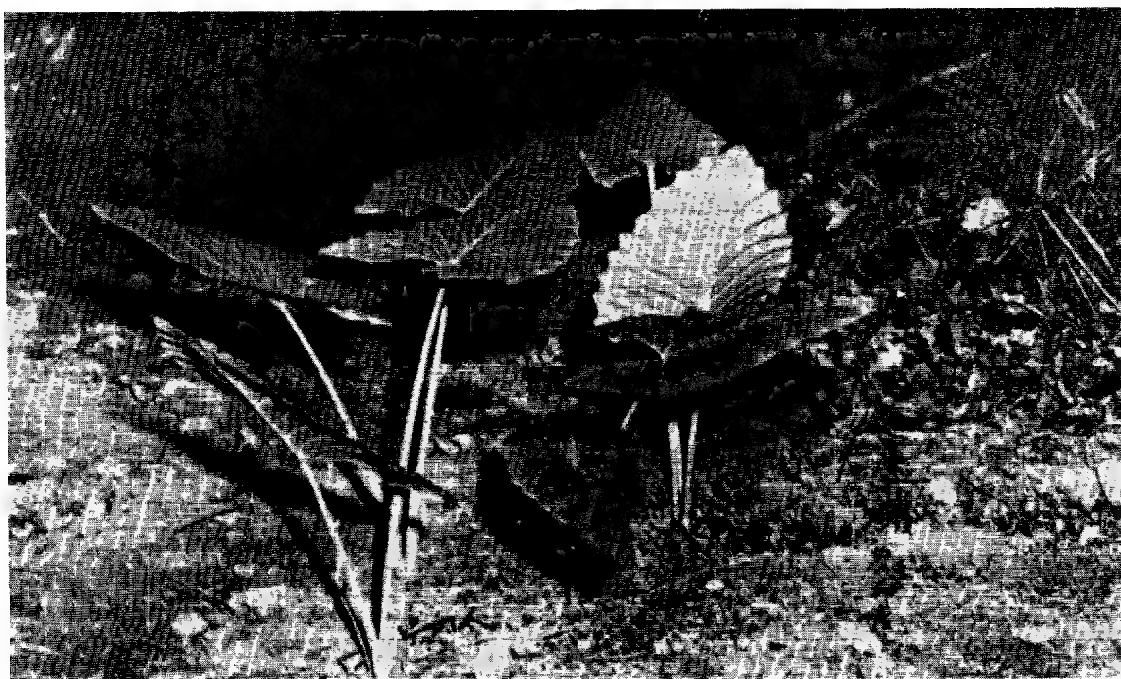


Figure 31. Taro

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Figure 32. Yam.

When traveling through forested areas, one should look for edible plants in clearings, such as along streams or in burned or cutover places. In the mountains, where shifting agriculture is practiced, many food plants continue to grow wild after the cultivated plots are abandoned. Few plant foods are found in areas of dense underbrush, and they are not likely to be abundant in the drier open forests or grasslands.

There is no foolproof method to determine whether or not a plant will be harmful when eaten, but certain rules may be applied. In general, it is safe to try plants that are eaten by birds and mammals, particularly by members of the ape family. Anything with an unusually bitter, soapy, or otherwise disagreeable taste may be harmful, and plants with milky juices should be avoided entirely. Plants that are bristly or scratch the tongue should not be eaten; they will probably do the same to the digestive tract. A strange plant should never be eaten in large quantity

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until a small portion has been tested; small amounts of poisonous food are not likely to prove dangerous.

In addition to wild plants, cultivated varieties may provide sources of food. Rice is planted in May or June and harvested late in the year. The ripened grain can be eaten raw but, if possible, should be cooked into a broth. A variety of fruits and vegetables are usually grown in and around villages.

3. Fauna

a) Food

Although many areas of Cambodia are teeming with a variety of wildlife, the abundance of game is not readily apparent to the casual traveler. While large animals such as elephants, tigers, or wild buffalo are especially furtive, they should be avoided anyway because of their potential danger. Small game such as squirrels, rabbits, badgers, civets, monkeys, or wild fowl are more likely to be encountered. For those who are not equipped with firearms, however, obtaining game -- large or small -- will be a problem. Unless an individual is well versed in the preparation and use of traps and snares, any time spent in their construction is likely to prove futile. Subsisting off more easily obtained plant life and lower forms of animal life is recommended.

Fish and other marine life are more readily obtained than game and are an especially nutritious food source. The Tonle Sap and other smaller lakes, streams, roadside ditches, and even rice paddies abound with a wide variety of fish, crustaceans, mollusks, snails, turtles, and frogs. Fish can be caught with the equipment included in standard survival kits or by improving tackle from odds and ends of such personal equipment as wire or pins or from such plant life as bamboo or saplings. When shallow streams are dammed with rocks or mud, the fish can be easily caught in makeshift scoops or nets. Fish are easiest to catch at the end of the rainy season when they are trapped in pools left behind by receding waters. As the waters of the wet-season Tonle Sap recede, hundreds

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of fishermen erect bamboo weirs to trap the fish as they swim back to the sanctuary of the dry-season lake.

A variety of saltwater fish, most of them edible, abounds in Cambodia's coastal waters. Several species have poisonous flesh, however, and should not be eaten. Such fish usually can be identified by their heavy parrotlike beaks, thick lips, absence of scales, or separated dorsal spines unconnected by membrane; most inhabit shallow waters around islands or reefs. Oysters found growing in clumps, colonies, or mounds and exposed at low tide should be considered poisonous.

All land snakes are edible. Even poisonous species can be eaten if the venom sacs are removed by cutting off the head. Care must be taken not to get the venom into any skin lesion. The meat of all sea snakes should be avoided. Various species of edible lizards -- some of them ranging up to several feet long -- are found in all regions of the country. They are most likely to be seen along tracks, roads, or riverbanks, but some types live in burrows or termite mounds and others are tree climbers.

Birds are abundant, the seasonally inundated forest of the Tonle Sap being a particularly popular nesting place. All species -- and their eggs -- are edible.

The best places to hunt for birds or mammals are in forest clearings and along trails, roads, streams, and lakeshores, where they come to in search of food and water. They are least likely to be encountered in densely forested tracts. The possibilities of sighting game vary seasonally, especially in the grasslands and open forests, where the tall grass may obscure animals during the rainy season. During the dry season, in contrast, much of the grass cover is burned off, and the desiccation of many of the watering places forces animals to congregate near those that remain. Leaf fall in the deciduous forests also enhances sighting possibilities in the dry season. If personnel are armed, they should lie in wait for animals at watering places during the early morning or at dusk.

Because many animals and fish carry dangerous intestinal parasites, all meat should be cleaned and cooked thoroughly before eating. Because meat spoils rapidly under tropical conditions, it should be eaten within 24 hours after cooking. If thin slices of meat are smoked or sun dried, they will keep indefinitely.

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Insects are an easily accessible source of emergency food for the psychologically prepared traveler. Grasshoppers, termites, and the larvae of many insects (usually found in rotten logs or bamboo, in the ground, or under the bark of dead trees) are edible and nourishing. Such food can be eaten raw without ill effects, but if cooked may be more appealing to the squeamish.

b) Hazards

A number of large animals, including the elephant, rhinoceros, wild boar, wild dog, wild buffalo, tiger, leopard, panther, and bear, are potential hazards to man. None are likely to be encountered, however, unless a traveler traverses game trails or lingers near watering places. Even if encountered, none are likely to attack a human unless cornered, injured, or surprised -- as, for example, when a mother is with her young. To evade such hazards one need only avoid camping near trails, watering sites, or obvious feeding and bedding areas and keep a small fire going at night -- when such animals are most active.

Four varieties of snakes in Cambodia are potentially deadly: the cobra; its larger and more menacing relative, the king cobra; the banded krait; and the Russell's viper. Several species of kraits, vipers, and sea snakes also are present, but in general their bites are painful at worst and dangerous only to those who are allergic to the particular venom. Even deadly snakes are not a serious menace because, being timid, they will disappear at the slightest disturbance. An attack is unlikely unless the snake is stumbled over accidentally but precautions should be taken.

One should be particularly careful when moving around slash, fallen trees or limbs, brush piles, or other deadfall. Snakes also may seclude themselves in ratholes (common in dikes separating rice paddies) or in earthen mounds such as anthills or termite mounds. When traversing rocky terrain, the traveler should look, if possible, before placing his hands on rocks or ledges above his head or before stepping down into shadowed rock crevices. Since snakes generally are most active at night, one should be doubly cautious after sundown when moving about places favored by snakes. When camping, clothes and equipment should

S-E-C-R-E-T

S-E-C-R-E-T

be hung on tree limbs rather than being placed on the ground. Similarly, it is good practice to sleep in a hammock or on an improvised sleeping platform. Because the venom may act on the body in a matter of minutes, all snakebites must be treated as quickly as possible (one should always assume that the offender is poisonous). Pain is not an accurate indicator of the seriousness of a bite. The bite of the cobra, for example, is not initially painful.

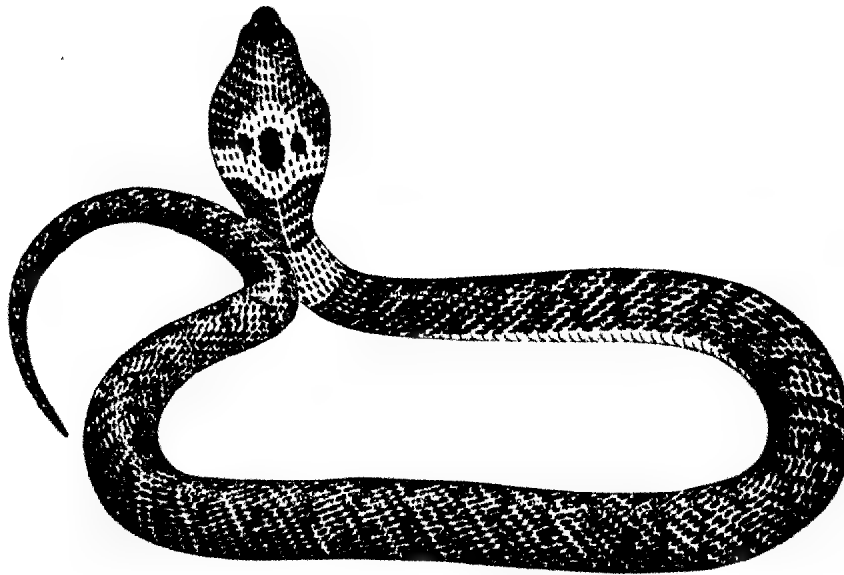
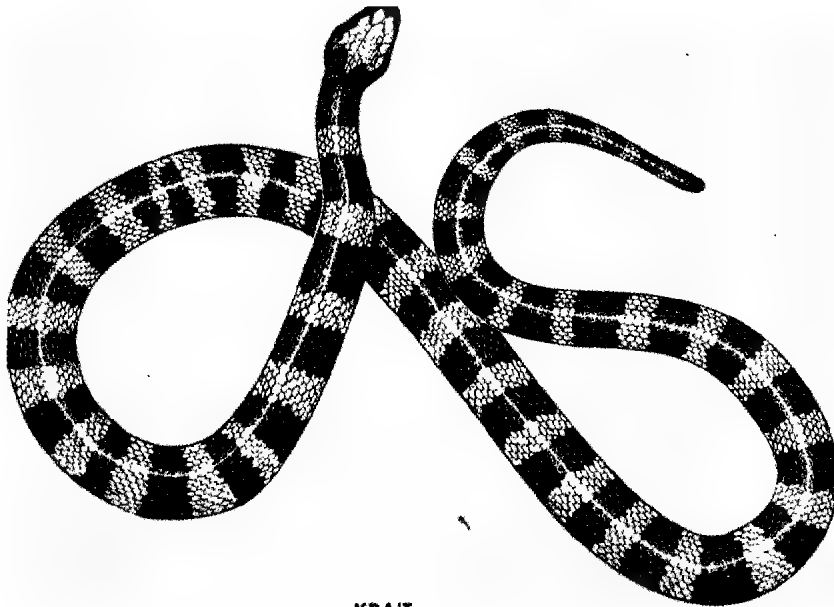


Figure 33. Cobra. Typical combat attitude -- raised head and spread hood -- is most recognizable characteristic.

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KRAIT

Figure 34. Krait. Alternate black and yellow bands and ridged backbone identify this poisonous snake.

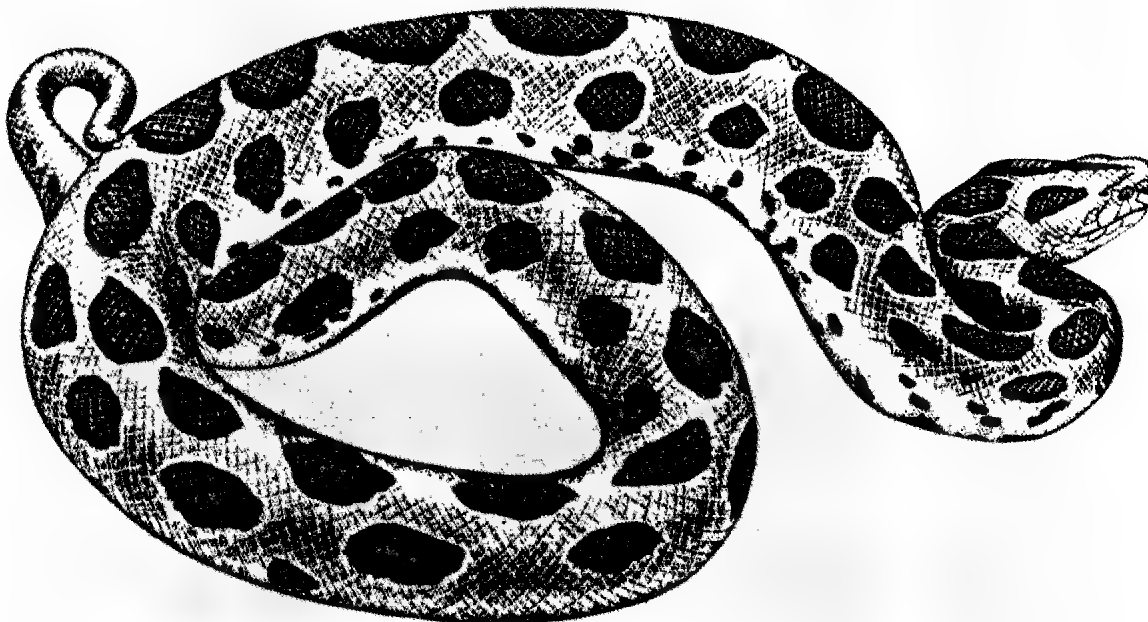


Figure 35. Russell's viper. Note thick body and distinctive chainlike markings on back.

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Crocodiles may be encountered in coastal swamps and in the deltaic distributaries of the Mekong. They have surprising speed and agility when stalking their prey in water and should be avoided.

A variety of stinging jellyfish -- including the highly poisonous Portuguese man-of-war -- may be found floating in the waters of the Gulf of Thailand. All such "fish" have stinging units in their tentacles but, except for the man-of-war, their stings are not poisonous. Sea urchins are common in shallow, coral-laden waters. Their sharp venomous spines can inflict painful wounds on a shoeless wader unlucky enough to step on one. Venomous sea life such as the scorpion fish, stonefish, toadfish, zebra fish, and stingray also frequent coral reefs and shallow inshore waters. They lie motionless on the bottom among rocks or chunks of coral or burrow into the bottom. Difficult to see, they may easily be stepped on by one not exercising extreme caution. All are equipped with venomous spines which can inflict painful wounds. Other potentially dangerous or troublesome aquatic animals include the barracuda, electric ray, shark, moray eel, and conger eel.

Small pests are probably the greatest threat to the well-being of a traveler. Various biting and stinging insects, leeches, ticks, ants, and spiders abound in Cambodia and are particularly bothersome during the rainy season. Some are serious hazards. Several of the innumerable mosquito species in the country, for instance, transmit malaria, dengue fever, filariasis, and other infections. Although the incidence of malaria has been reduced since the inception of control and eradication programs in 1962, personnel should take precautions against the bites of malaria-carrying insects. Malaria-bearing mosquitoes are most prevalent in poorly drained, sunny, lowland regions, but breed in mountain streams and much of the South-western Highlands is malaria-infested. A traveler in mosquito-infested areas, in addition to taking malaria-suppressant drugs, should use insect repellent and wear suitable clothing and netting to keep exposed skin to a minimum, particularly after sundown. The transmission period of malaria reaches a peak during the rainy season when breeding places are most abundant.

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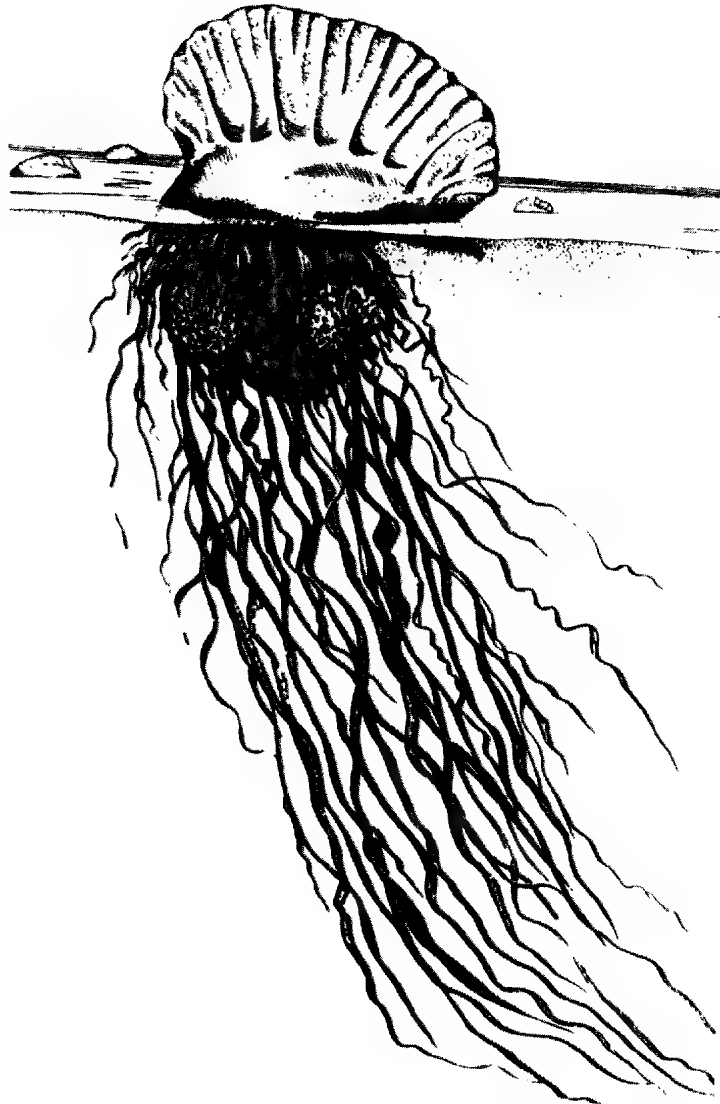


Figure 36. Portuguese man-of-war. A sting from this jellyfish can be extremely painful.

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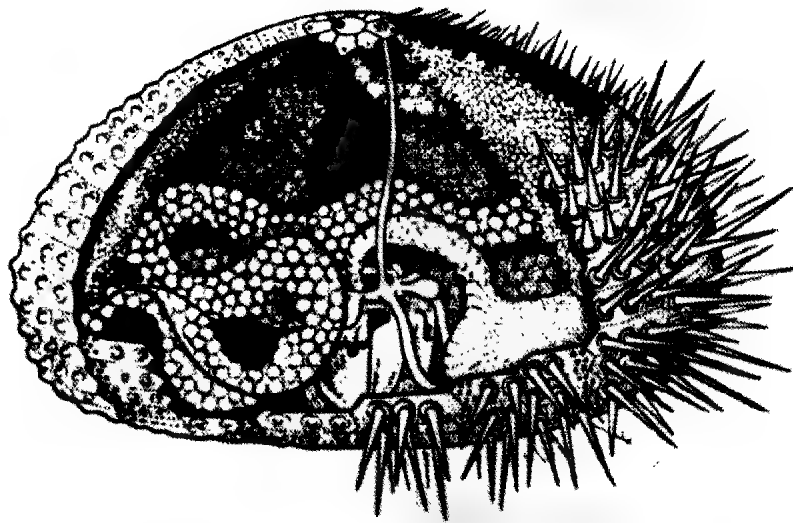


Figure 37. Sea urchin. The sharp spines can inflict painful wounds.

Flies, which abound in the rainy season, vary greatly in size and in the discomfort they can cause. Some are vicious biters. Since various species may produce secondary infections by depositing their larvae in skin lesions such as abrasions, bites, or rashes, all skin lesions should be kept clean and covered with clean material. Near villages, flies may be mechanical vectors (carriers) of intestinal, skin, or eye diseases. Protective measures used against mosquitoes are generally effective against flies.

Rats and other rodents are likely to be infested with fleas and lice, which in turn may carry several diseases, including typhus and plague. The use of louse powder, exposure of clothing to direct sunlight for a few hours, and frequent washing of the body in hot soapy water are good precautions against such pests. Sandfleas, which may be encountered near bodies of water, can cause great discomfort.

Bloodsucking land leeches may infest the grasslands and the ferny undergrowth in the forests during the rainy season. They cling to the vegetation and eagerly attach themselves to passersby. It is difficult to keep them from the body because of their ability to pass through small openings -- even through coarse stockings or the eyelets of laced shoes. Their

S-E-C-R-E-T

S-E-C-R-E-T

bites generally are painless but may cause discomfort and loss of blood. Leeches often are discovered only by a thorough examination of the body; in leech-infested country, such examinations should be frequent. Leeches should be removed carefully to avoid secondary infection by applying a burning cigarette or some dehydrating substance such as salt, alcohol, iodine, tobacco juice, or dry ashes. If the leech is pulled off by force the wound may become infected. Another variety of leech which infests streams and other water bodies can be a menace to one seeking a refreshing dip.

Ticks, common in wooded and grassy areas, are carriers of scrub typhus and may cause secondary infections if improperly removed from the skin. Having jaws, they are more difficult to remove than leeches but, like leeches, sometimes can be dislodged by being touched with lighted cigarettes; they also may be removed by being painted with iodine or covered with vaseline or a similar viscous substance. If other methods fail, a sterile instrument should be used to extract them, the area of broken skin being treated with antibiotic ointment to prevent secondary infection.

Ants, a particular nuisance, may be seen swarming over the forest floor or on forest vegetation. One should be especially careful not to brush against ant-infested bamboo lest dozens of infuriated stinging insects swarm down his back. A nocturnal visit from hundreds of ants is not unlikely for one camping in the forest; a liberal spraying of DDT inside the tent or around the sleeping area is an effective deterrent to such invasions.

Scorpions, although less numerous than other pests, may be encountered. Normally found under stones, in tree trunks, or in soil crevices, they may come into camping sites and seek out sleeping bags or such items of clothing as shoes. To guard against their stings, sleeping platforms should be improvised and clothing should not be left on the ground. The scorpion's sting is extremely painful and can incapacitate a man for several days. Bites or stings from other pests may be painful, but their effect normally does not last as long unless the individual is allergic.

S-E-C-R-E-T

S-E-C-R-E-T

4. Water

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[REDACTED] During the latter part of the dry season, however, local shortages may occur, particularly on the plains north of the Tonle Sap. Even if stream valleys appear dry, they may yield drinking water if one digs into spots where the drainage from surrounding slopes tends to concentrate.

Water may be located by studying vegetation patterns or the movements of birds and animals. For example, a line of trees in grasslands may mark a water source. Most birds fly to water at least once a day and game trails eventually lead to water. At the beginning of their evening flights, bats always fly to a place where water is available.

Most water sources are polluted and carry diseases such as dysentery, cholera, or typhoid; blood flukes and various types of worms also may be transmitted through drinking water. The most dangerous sources are slow-moving bodies of water downriver from villages, whereas the safest drinking water is in clear, fast-moving mountain streams. All water, however -- even from such streams or from municipal-treated sources -- should be considered contaminated and should be purified by using chemicals such as halazone or iodine, or by boiling for 1 minute plus 1 additional minute for each 1,000 feet of elevation.

Rainwater can be collected by devising a makeshift container from available clothing or equipment; a poncho serves as an ideal catchment. The leaves, stems, and roots of many succulent plants and the stems of many vines, climbing rattans, and bamboo contain water that can be drunk safely without treatment. Vines and rattans should be cut into 2- or 3-foot lengths and allowed to drip. Water can be drained from large bamboo shafts by cutting into each segment just above the joint. Nipa palms and young banana trees may yield water if their trunks are gashed. Tips of the aerial roots of the pandanus tree also may contain water. The flower stalks of all palms contain a drinkable sugary sap, and the green nuts of the coconut palm yield a fluid that can be drunk in quantity without harmful effect.

S-E-C-R-E-T

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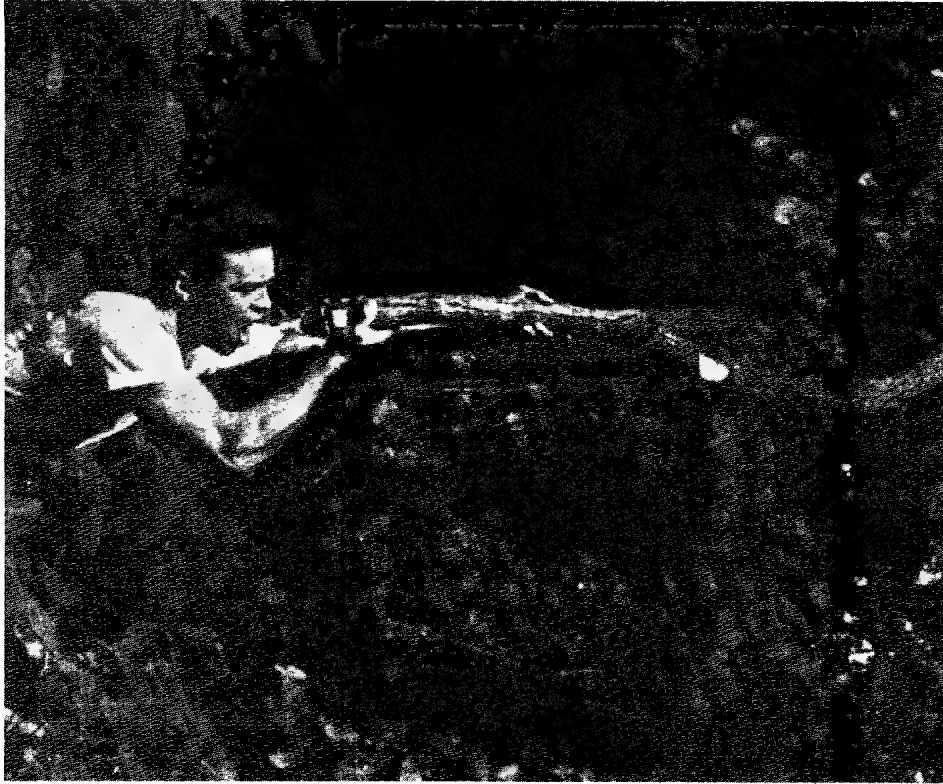


Figure 38. Obtaining water from a vine.

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Table 1
Mean Precipitation

Station	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Ann
Battambang (13°06'N 103°12'E)	0.2	0.7	1.9	3.4	6.2	5.8	6.1	6.1	10.2	8.8	3.3	1.0	53.7
Dak Dam (12°20'N 107°21'E)	0.1	0.7	2.5	4.1	13.2	13.0	19.8	19.9	18.4	10.3	5.6	0.9	108.5
Kampot (10°37'N 104°11'E)	0.6	1.0	3.2	4.3	7.6	8.4	12.8	13.3	9.9	9.2	5.7	1.8	77.8
Kratie (12°29'N 106°01'E)	0.4	0.5	0.9	4.3	9.6	9.5	13.3	10.3	13.3	6.9	3.1	1.0	73.1
Phnom Penh (11°33'N 104°55'E)	0.3	0.4	1.4	3.1	5.7	5.8	6.0	6.1	8.9	9.9	5.5	1.7	54.8
Kompong Som (10°38'N 103°30'E)	1.5	1.0	4.9	4.2	11.4	18.2	26.3	29.6	26.9	14.9	6.3	1.6	146.8
Stung Treng (13°31'N 105°58'E)	0.1	0.5	1.1	3.3	8.0	10.9	13.3	12.2	12.8	7.4	2.4	0.5	72.5

S-E-C-R-E-T

Table 2 - Principal Diseases

DISEASE	CARRIER	DISTRIBUTION	PREVENTION	TREATMENT	COMMENT
Influenza	Infected humans	Widespread	None	Rest and aspirin or APC	Most prevalent in the Fall
Smallpox	Infected humans	Kampot province primarily	Inoculation	Rest and general supportive therapy	
Trachoma	Infected humans	Primarily in Phnom Penh and Kampot - rare in Battambang	General cleanliness, avoid contact with infected persons	Tetracycline	Infection rates of 30% in some areas
Meningococcal Meningitis	Infected humans	Unknown	Sulfadiazine during epidemic	Penicillin and sulfonamides	
Yaws	Infected humans	Widespread	General cleanliness, penicillin	Penicillin	
Malaria	Mosquito	Hills and low mountain areas	Mosquito repellent and primaquine	Quinine and pyrimethamine	Falciparum malaria is resistant to Chloroquine, pyrimethamine (alone) and proguanil
Dengue	Mosquito	Widespread	Mosquito repellent	Bed rest	Also called 5-day fever or 7-day fever

S-E-C-R-E-T

DISEASE	CARRIER	DISTRIBUTION	PREVENTION	TREATMENT	COMMENT
Japanese B Encephalitis	Mosquito	Southern Cambodia	Mosquito repellent antisera inoculation	Supportive therapy,	Antisera inoculation is often ineffective
Filariasis	Mosquito	Unknown	Mosquito repellent	Hetrazan or Dimethylcarbamazine	Often produces elephantiasis
Amebic dysentery	Unclean food, water, soil	Widespread	Clean food and water	Diodoquine	
Cholera	Unclean food, water, soil	Widespread	Inoculation	Tetracycline and chloramphenicol	Outbreaks are sporadic
Infectious hepatitis	Unclean food, water, soil	Widespread	Clean food, water; gamma globulin inoculation	General supportive therapy, adequate diet complete rest	Gamma globulin will produce a degree of immunity for about 2 months
Typhoid and paratyphoid fevers	Unclean food, water, and soil	Widespread	Inoculation	Chloromycetin	
Bacillary dysentery	Unclean food, water, and soil	Widespread	Clean food and water; sulfadiazine if exposed	Aureomycin or sulfadiazine	

S-E-C-R-E-T

S-E-C-R-E-T

DISEASE	CARRIER	DISTRIBUTION	PREVENTION	TREATMENT	COMMENT
Hookworms, roundworm, and whipworm	Unclean food, water and soil	Widespread	Clean food and water; always wear shoes	Tetrachloroethylene or piperazine	
Leptospirosis	Rats and other small animals	Widespread	Clean food, water; avoid bathing in streams frequented by rodents	Tetracycline	
Q-fever	Ticks	Unknown	DDT in clothing	Chloromycetin	Probably uncommon in Cambodia
Bubonic plague	Rat flea	Widespread	Inoculation	Streptomycin	A significant danger only during an outbreak
Scrub typhus	Mites	Rural grassy areas	DDT in clothing	Chloromycetin	Less common in recent years
Leishmaniasis (visceral)	Sandfly	Widespread	Fly repellent	Neostibosan	

S-E-C-R-E-T

S-E-C-R-E-T

<u>DISEASE</u>	<u>CARRIER</u>	<u>DISTRIBUTION</u>	<u>PREVENTION</u>	<u>TREATMENT</u>	<u>COMMENT</u>
Rabies	Bite of infected animal	Widespread	Avoid animal bites, particularly if animal appears sluggish or sick	Thorough wound washing, institution of rabies vaccine series	Bite victim must be evacuated rapidly

Medical Factors of Importance in Cambodia

Conditions of poverty and illiteracy contribute to a low level of health in the rural areas of Cambodia as in other countries of Southeast Asia. Very little of the government's disease control effort has been effective because of inadequate funds and personnel, and because of public apathy and obstructive customs and practices. The most important medical considerations for small force operations in Cambodia are: personal cleanliness; camp cleanliness; adequate prophylaxis plus competent medical support; and common sense in dealing with natives or native villages and their foods where these are known to harbor specific diseases.

S-E-C-R-E-T

S-E-C-R-E-T

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S-E-C-R-E-T

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- CAMBODIA

CHAPTER II - THE PEOPLE

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
A. General	1
B. Social Structure	3
C. Religion	4
D. Language	6
E. Education	7
F. Settlement Patterns and Housing	8
G. Ceremonies and Holidays	12
II. Ethnic Groups	
1. Khmer	14
2. Chinese	18
3. Vietnamese	25
4. Khmer Loeu	30
5. Cham-Malays	46

Photographs
(Abbreviated Titles)

Figure No.

1	Buddhist pagoda in Phnom Penh	5
2	Vietnamese Buddhist pagoda on outskirts of Phnom Penh	5
3	Buddhist monks during coronation of King and Queen	6
4	Compact settlement on outskirts of Phnom Penh	9
5	Floating village on Tonle Sap	10
6	Floating fishing village on Mekong south of Phnom Penh	10

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<u>Figure No.</u>		<u>Page</u>
7	Khmer peasant house	11
8	Relatively well constructed Khmer houses	11
9	Old man waits for Sihanouk to pass by	16
10	Khmer men	17
11	Khmer family	17
12	Khmer villagers wearing various types of apparel	18
13	Rural Chinese family in village near Phnom Penh	21
14	Chinese students preparing for demonstration	24
15	Chinese shops and houses in town	24
16	Vietnamese woman in detention camp	27
17	Market scene in Phnom Penh	30
18	Khmer Loeu tribesman	36
19	Khmer Loeu tribesman smoking pipe	37
20	Khmer Loeu youths	38
21	Khmer Loeu hunter	38
22	Rhade' man dressed in native loincloth and shirt	39
23	Rhade' women dressed in native attire	40
24	Slash-and-burn agricultural land	40
25	Khmer Loeu tribal peoples engaged in native crafts	41
26	Kui girl with crude cotton gin	41
27	Kui woman carrying water	42
28	Khmer Loeu village	43
29	Headman's house in Jarai village	43
30	Khmer Loeu tribal dwellings in Mondolkiri	44
31	Rhade' village in Mondolkiri Province	44
32	Cham-Malays	48
33	Vietnamese and Cham-Malay merchants	48

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25X1

- CAMBODIA

CHAPTER II - THE PEOPLE

(September 1970)

A. General

The last Cambodian census, taken in 1962, enumerated 5,728,930 people in the country. As of 1 July 1970, the US Census Bureau estimated the population at 6,848,000. Cambodia, in general, is lightly populated with its overall density of 100 persons per square mile far less than the 160 per square mile for all of Southeast Asia. Density varies considerably throughout the country with the vast majority of the people living in the Mekong delta or in the lowlands surrounding the Tonle Sap. Density approaches 500 persons per square mile in the area of Kandal Province around Phnom Penh while elsewhere in the delta, densities are in the 200 to 300 range.* Density becomes progressively lighter away from the Tonle Sap-Mekong drainage system. The uplands in the east and southwest are very lightly peopled, and much of the Cardamomes Mountains in the southwest is virtually uninhabited.

Cambodia's population is overwhelmingly rural, with most people living in small villages of from 100 to 300 population. The only significant exception is Phnom Penh whose population has swelled to more than 1,500,000 as refugees have swarmed there to escape the unrest in the countryside. There are only 12 other urban centers with populations of more than 10,000. Combined, they comprise about three percent of Cambodia's total population and include:

* In comparison, the Red River delta of North Vietnam and the Indonesian island of Java -- among the most densely populated areas in the world -- support some 1,500 persons per square mile.

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PRINCIPAL CITIES WITH ESTIMATED 1970 POPULATIONS*

Battambang	43,000	Kompong Chhnang	15,000
Kompong Cham	40,000	Siem Reap	15,000
Kompong Som	17,000	Svay Rieng	14,000
Kratie	17,000	Prey Veng	13,000
Pursat	16,000	Kompong Thom	12,000
Kampot	15,000	Takeo	10,000

Cambodia's population is more ethnically homogeneous than those of other Southeast Asian countries. According to 1962 census data, Khmers (ethnic Cambodians) comprised some 93 percent of the total; Vietnamese, 3.8 percent; Chinese, 2.8 percent. "Others" included only 5,764 persons, or about .1 percent of the total. Such figures, however, are misleading and assume more homogeneity of the population than actually exists. The census does not enumerate, for example, either the 80,000 Muslim Cham-Malays or the approximately 50,000 primitive Khmer Loeu (Upland Khmer) tribesmen who occupy Cambodia's mountainous frontiers. A more current and realistic estimate of the country's ethnic composition follows:

ETHNIC COMPOSITION

<u>Community</u>	<u>Numbers</u>	<u>Percent of Total</u>
Khmer	5,950,000	86.9
Chinese	425,000	6.2
Vietnamese*	225,000	3.3
Cham-Malay	80,000	1.2
Khmer Loeu	50,000	.7
Other (Lao, Thai, Burman, European)	<u>118,000</u>	<u>1.7</u>
Total	6,848,000	100.0

* Except for Phnom Penh, estimates do not consider changes occasioned by movement of refugees from rural areas into the towns since April 1970.

** Estimate considers large-scale exodus of Vietnamese to South Vietnam, as of late July 1970.

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In about one-half of the urban centers, Khmers are outnumbered by the combined Vietnamese and Chinese communities, but in Phnom Penh the percentage of Khmers has increased greatly during the past three decades. A mid-1960's estimate of the capital's racial composition placed the Khmer-Vietnamese-Chinese balance at two-third's Khmer with the remainder split between Chinese and Vietnamese. Elsewhere, the Chinese probably comprise between one-fourth and one-third of the populations of most major cities. Ethnic groups are well segregated from one another in the urban centers while the smaller towns and villages are usually better integrated and more homogeneous. Social ties in the cities are relatively weak and pagodas do not function as unifying forces as they do in rural areas.

B. Social Structure

National unity in Cambodia has been enhanced by (1) common homage to the royal family which occupies the apex of the social and political pyramid, (2) common devotion to Theravada Buddhism, the state religion, (3) a common language with only slight dialectic variations, and (4) a continuity of physical geography with rugged tracts found only in the fringes of the country. There are, however, two fissures in Khmer society -- (1) the separation of Khmer from non-Khmer and (2) educated from non-educated.

Lines separating the traditional social classes are being increasingly blurred and social mobility enhanced, particularly among the urban population. (Those of royal descent that form the upper class, to be sure, remain a closed group.) In Phnom Penh, persons now can more readily advance their socio-economic status through education, occupational achievement, or even -- to a limited degree -- through religious piety. Movement up the socio-economic ladder, however, is impeded by an insufficient number of positions to absorb those with educational preparation. As a consequence, government and business offices are overstaffed with educated employees performing menial chores. Other qualified individuals are employed in unskilled jobs such as pedicab drivers or dock workers. The strata of urban middle-class businessmen, professionals, clerks, teachers and traders has been comprised of a disproportionate number of Chinese and Vietnamese. The Khmers, however, continue to predominate in Government service where few Chinese or Vietnamese are found. The lower strata of urban society -- manual laborers and small shopkeepers -- are comprised largely of Khmer and Vietnamese migrants from the countryside. Many of these seasonal migrants return to their villages as the rice planting season

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approaches.

While the more stratified social system of the urban centers becomes more mobile, its rural counterpart remains simple and egalitarian. Despite increasing contact with the outside world as peasants flow to and from the cities, the rural pattern remains substantially intact. All but a handful of the people are peasant farmers; there are no wealthy landlords and few impoverished peasants; wealth is not important in determining social rank. Only the village headman and lay leader of the ubiquitous village pagoda stand above the otherwise unstructured village society. Although enhanced opportunities to advance through education are adding a new dimension to the conventional rural structure, social distinctions remain unimportant. Unlike most other Southeast Asian countries, extended family relationships do not serve as a major cohesive force in the rural village. The individual family, however, is the basic unit of rural society. Kinship ties are not strong and the individual is not completely submerged to community-wide interests. Therefore, there is no compelling urge to remain in the village and many individuals, particularly the young, drift away to settle permanently in urban centers.

C. Religion

Theravada Buddhism is the state religion of Cambodia and nearly all of the Khmer population profess its tenets. The Cambodian constitution, however, guarantees religious freedom and sizeable minorities practice other faiths. The Vietnamese and about three percent of the Chinese profess the Mahayana Buddhism that prevails in their homelands. Most of the Chinese cling to the mixture of Confucianism, Taoism, and ancestor worship that is shared by most other Overseas Chinese in Southeast Asia. Nearly all Cham-Malays are devout Muslims while most Khmer Loeu remain animists. Only the few French people remaining in the country and a number of converted Vietnamese and Khmer Loeu profess Christianity; nearly all are Roman Catholics.

The doctrines of Buddhism which underlie most Khmer values and attitudes provide a code for daily lives and enhance national unity. There are more than 2,700 pagodas in the country -- one in nearly every village -- and more than 65,000 permanent bonzes (monks). Despite its pervasion into most aspects of Khmer society, the role and influence of Buddhism has diminished in the past few decades, particularly in the urban areas.

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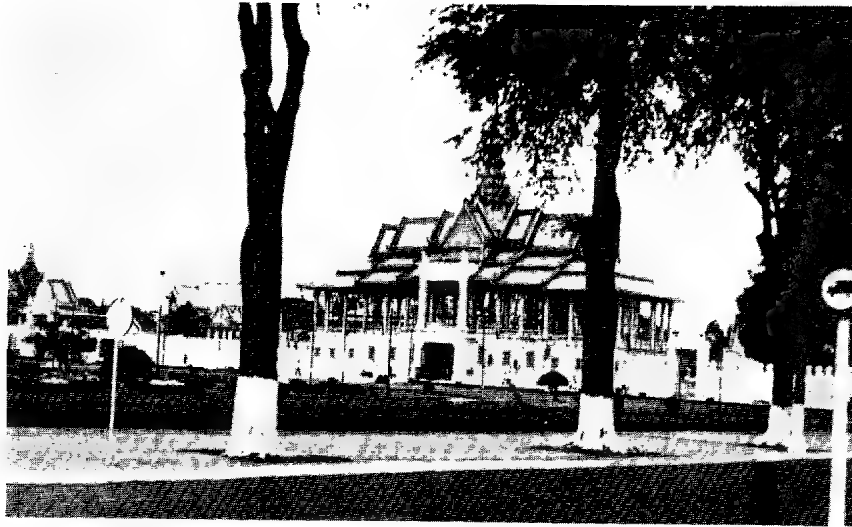


Figure 1. Buddhist pagoda in Phnom Penh. Such structures are ubiquitous throughout the city and countryside.



Figure 2. Vietnamese Buddhist pagoda on outskirts of Phnom Penh. Note apparent Moorish influence on archways along front of building.

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Figure 3. Buddhist monks during coronation of King and Queen. Monks shave their heads, wear saffron-colored robes, and generally go bare-footed. 1956.

D. Language

Khmer has been the national language of Cambodia since 1953, when it replaced French. A language of the Mon-Khmer family, it is spoken not only by the Khmers but as a second language, with varying degrees of proficiency, by the minority groups. As they become more and more assimilated, increasing numbers of these minorities are using it as a first language. Only the more remotely located Khmer Loeu tribes of the Eastern Highlands are unfamiliar with Khmer. Many of the minorities are conversant in more than two languages. The Chinese, for example, may speak one of several Chinese dialects in every day conversation, use Mandarin in school

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instruction, Vietnamese in the market place, and Khmer at all other times. The Thai and Vietnamese languages, although containing many Mon-Khmer elements, are unintelligible to a Khmer-speaker.

To strengthen national unity the Cambodian Government has promoted Khmer as the lingua franca and discouraged the use of French and minority languages. Since the departure of the French colonialists, Khmer has increasingly replaced French in the Government and in the schools. Wider use of Khmer is impeded, however, by a vocabulary deficient in technical terms, and lack of a uniform system of romanization and transliteration in the writing system. Use of French, therefore, persists in intellectual, official, and commercial circles; it is rarely spoken in rural areas. Knowledge of English, although increasing, has been limited to Government officials and others with advanced educations.

E. Education

Well over half of the Cambodian population is literate, although reading proficiency of most persons is not high because of the paucity of reading materials. Literacy has been stressed since independence; the reduction in illiteracy has been marked since 1964 when a literacy campaign was launched by then-Prince Sihanouk. The Government has placed great emphasis on education to prepare Cambodians to replace French and Vietnamese in civil service positions. School enrollments have outstripped the teaching staffs and the scarcity of qualified teachers has been a serious problem; quality of education, consequently, has been low. Although primary education is compulsory, few complete the six years. Because competition for enrollment in the few secondary facilities is keen, moreover, only about one-half of those who complete their primary schooling continue at the secondary level. Secondary education consists of one 4-year and one 3-year period. Cambodia has only nine universities with a combined enrollment of less than 7,000 students. Many students -- often financed by foreign aid -- travel abroad to attain a university-level education. Because there are few positions in the civil service and commerce which require a higher education, the Government has stressed technical and vocational training. Students are encouraged to remain in their own communities where, it is hoped, their new talents will contribute to local development and production.

Most of the primary education previously provided by the Buddhist pagodas has been assumed by Government-run schools.

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Education provided in French, Chinese, and Vietnamese private schools, moreover, are now closely regulated by the Government which requires that Khmer be taught at least three hours weekly. The Chinese schools have been the targets of most restrictions, it being feared they were being used to teach Communist subversive doctrine. Chinese secondary schools have been closed and Chinese students denied from traveling abroad for a higher education. The Chinese have thus been forced to attend Government schools to attain more than an elementary education. The Vietnamese have been more willing than the Chinese to attend Government schools in which Khmer is the language of instruction.

F. Settlement Pattern and Housing

Hundreds of small Khmer villages dot the lowland areas of Cambodia in a predominantly linear pattern which may extend for miles atop natural river levees or along roads. Such villages may form unbroken lines of settlement for miles along the Mekong and Bassac Rivers or their tributary waterways. In the Transitional Plain, where conditions are drier and roads and waterways fewer, linear patterns are less pronounced; villages more often are clustered in wooded plots amid the ricefields, commonly at the base of one of the ubiquitous phnoms (hills). A distinctive settlement pattern rings the shores of the Tonle Sap -- an outer ring of villages situated just above the high water line, inhabited by rice farmers, whose individual dwellings are scattered among the trees; an inner ring of "floating villages" built on tall pilings or on rafts, clustered between the high and low water lines. Houses in such villages, occupied mostly by Vietnamese fishermen, are surrounded by water during much of the year. Floating villages consisting of houseboats tied together are also characteristic of the Tonle Sap lake region. Fishing villages also dot the coast of the Gulf of Thailand, particularly in its eastern sector.

Khmer villages are autonomous, self-sufficient, and self-contained. Most have a school, one or two pagodas, shops, and some form of rural government. Khmer Loeu villages in the mountainous regions are generally much smaller than those villages found in the lowlands. Most are comprised of a cluster of a dozen or so ramshackle single-family longhouses 50 feet or more long.

Most rural Khmers still live in thatched houses, although wood, tile, and masonry are becoming common construction materials in better homes. Nearly all houses in the lowlands -- even those well away from the waterways -- are built on

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piles or stilts. These stilts, generally ten feet high, range from mere tree branches to finished beams resting on concrete, depending on the age and wealth of the settlement. A typical Khmer home will have floors of woven bamboo and walls of thatched palm fronds or savanna grass. The thatched roof is always sharply gabled with overhanging eaves; there are no windows, but a space between the walls and eaves provides ventilation. Roofs are usually of either nipa fronds or grass thatch, depending on availability of such materials; some lowland houses may have roofs of corrugated metal. A few well constructed houses of wood, tile, and masonry are found in urban areas. Depending on family size, lowland houses may have from one to four or five rooms.



Figure 4. Compact settlement amid ricefields on outskirts of Phnom Penh.

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Figure 5. Floating village on Tonle Sap. Such villages may be inhabited by either Khmer or Vietnamese fishermen.

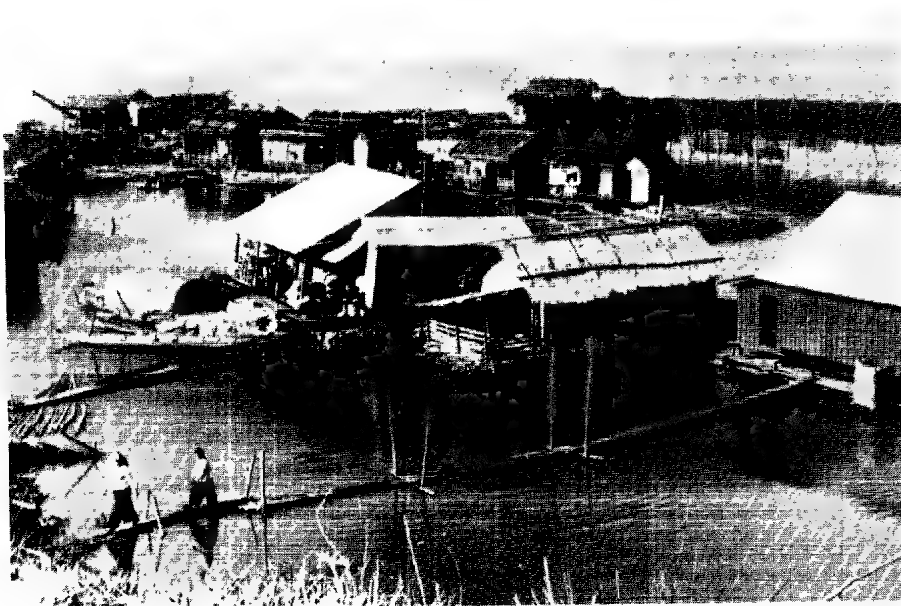


Figure 6. Floating fishing village on Mekong south of Phnom Penh. Inhabitants are Vietnamese.

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Figure 7. Khmer peasant house of bamboo and palm frond construction.



Figure 8. Relatively well constructed Khmer houses.

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Dwelling construction in the mountains is usually of thatched walls (windowless) and roof. Although most longhouses are perched on stilts, some mountain houses are built directly on the ground. One large room is the rule for single-family dwellings, several single-room family units for the longhouses. In both lowlands and uplands, privacy is minimal, crowding general. Poor farmers may have only one room, but many houses have several rooms separated by partitions of dried palm fronds which provide visual privacy only. Furnishings are austere, consisting mostly of mats and cushions. A kitchen shed may be separate from the house and joined by a ramp, or it may be found under the house. Rural houses are commonly surrounded by fruit trees with vegetable gardens in the back. Few rural houses have privies or wells.

G. Ceremonies and Holidays

The Cambodians participate in numerous ceremonies. Some are religious or semi-religious observances, while others are secular fairs or commemorations of national historical events. Most are observed by all peasants regardless of religious affiliation or political leanings. mal daily activity ceases; at such

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A number of community festivals are held during crucial periods of the rice-growing season. Their purpose is to protect the crop from evil spirits so that a bountiful harvest can be attained. Paramount among such festivals is the "Ploughing of the Holy Furrow", held at the beginning of the rainy season (late May or early June). Rituals performed by the royal family are believed to forecast the results of the year's crop; the findings of the ritual, in fact, may influence the Government's rice policy for that year. The "Festival of the Reversing Current", more often called simply the "Water Festival", is held for three days at the end of the rainy season (late October or early November). It commemorates the reversal of the Tonle Sap waters as they flow once again into the Mekong. Throngs of people line the river in Phnom Penh to watch the Chief of State cut a ribbon to symbolically "release" its waters. The major attractions of the festival, however, are the regattas of hundreds of 40-man pirogues, each representing a village, held on the Mekong in front of the Royal Palace.

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The anniversary of Buddha's death is observed in early February with a festival in the pagodas; a one-day celebration, held in late April or early May, honors his birth. "Prachum Ben", a religious festival in which offerings are made to the Buddhist bonzes for the benefit of the spirits of the dead, is held in the pagodas for several days, usually late in September. Each pagoda has its own "Kathen" day in October or November when the villagers present offerings to the bonzes. In addition to such annual observances, there are semi-monthly Buddhist holy days on which all Buddhists are exempted from labor; most peasants, however, do not break their daily work patterns.

New Years is observed for three days in mid-April.* A festival-like atmosphere prevails with an abundance of sporting events and dances. Thousands of pilgrims flock to the Buddhist shrines -- particularly to Angkor -- where they pray for good fortune. Like the western New Year, individuals propose to "turn over a new leaf." Other secular holidays observed include Labor Day -- 1 May; Constitution Day -- 6 May; United Nations Day -- 24 October; and Independence Day -- 9 November. The celebration of Independence Day includes a military parade in Phnom Penh, sports events in the Olympic Stadium, and dancing near the Royal Palace. Such officially sanctioned holidays, combined with other tacitly recognized ceremonial days, total some 50 to 60 days yearly. The latter include such western holidays as Christmas and the 1 January New Year which not only may be recognized by the western-oriented elite but may be eagerly acknowledged by most other Cambodians, anxious to celebrate any occasion.

* The Chinese and Vietnamese observe their own New Year's Day celebration some time in late January or early February.

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H. Ethnic Groups

1. Khmer

Number and Location: The Khmer (Cambodians), who number about 5,950,000, comprise about 87 percent of Cambodia's population. They are found throughout the country but are concentrated in the lowlands. Under-represented in the cities, the Khmers are outnumbered by the combined Chinese and Vietnamese populations in about half of Cambodia's urban centers. (An additional 450,000 Khmer reside in South Vietnam, more than 600,000 in Thailand, and small numbers in Laos.) Since 1960, the Cambodian Government has promoted the resettlement of Khmers in frontier regions to prevent penetration by Communist insurgents and to relieve urban unemployment. The program has been curtailed by prevailing unsettled conditions.

Racial Characteristics and Social Structure: The Khmer stem from a diverse ethnic stock which had its origins in South China before the Christian era. Centuries of intermixing with other groups has led to a wide variety of physical traits. Generally, however, they have dark, coffee-colored skin, wavy to curly hair, straight-set eyes, sturdy physiques, and an average male height of 5'4".

Cambodia is a land of villages, and most rural Khmer are conservative peasants whose lives are based on wet-rice agriculture. In addition to the peasants, there are three divisions within Khmer society; the royalty, bureaucracy, and monkhood. The status of the royal family has suffered as a result of Sihanouk's removal from power. No significant Khmer middle class exists, but the upper ranks of the bureaucracy are emerging to fill this gap. The status of the monkhood is as yet unchallenged.

Attitudes and Values: Theravada Buddhism imparts to all Khmer common values which emphasize gentleness, serenity, and unity within Cambodia. Most Khmer Buddhists observe the basic precepts of their moral code and abstain from such moral aberrations as taking a life (animal or human), committing adultery, or partaking of intoxicants. Buddhism stresses the concept of man as the sum total of his merits and demerits. Merit is accumulated through offerings made to monks or other devout people or through virtuous deeds such as service to the community or pagoda. Buddhist ethics are mixed with traditional folk beliefs in the rural areas; most Khmers believe in supernatural beings and perform propitiation rites to appease the spirits.

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The average Khmer peasant, largely conditioned by Buddhist teachings, stresses spiritual rather than material goals. He grows only enough food to feed his family; any surplus is usually sold to a Chinese merchant and the proceeds donated to his pagoda. Except for work in the village fields, manual labor is looked down upon and avoided when possible.

Traditional Buddhist values are being modified by western influences, especially among the Khmer youth who feel that such values inhibit progress. Those in urban areas are showing increasing concern for national and international problems. These Western-oriented individuals are less willing to accept the status quo than is the peasant element.

Khmers are generally amiable and have a strong aversion to violence. Territorial threats by aggressive neighbors, however, have helped shape their attitudes toward foreign peoples. Khmers dislike the Vietnamese and look upon them as conquerors who have deprived Cambodia of much of her territory. South Vietnamese troops in Cambodia today are condemned as guilty of pillaging villages that they occupy. The Khmers are similarly suspicious of the Thais who also have practiced territorial aggrandizement at Khmer expense. Thailand, moreover, has offered refuge to Cambodian dissidents during the past fifteen years, an irritant to Cambodian officials particularly.

Khmers resent and envy the Chinese; the peasant especially dislikes the Chinese moneylenders and rice merchants to whom he is always heavily in debt. Some resentment against the French among the educated Khmers may persist but the common people hold no strong feelings regarding them.

Dress: The national dress of the Khmer peasant, called a "sompot", is worn by both men and women. It consists of a long cotton or silk cloth, wrapped around the waist, passed through the legs and fastened in back. Women also wear blouses and shawls, or a sarong-type shirt may be suspended above the breasts; men may wear a shirt or high-necked tunic. Children's dress is more westernized -- boys wear shirts and shorts, while girls wear blouses and skirts or simple dresses. Although traditional clothing is still worn in rural areas, urban dress is rapidly becoming westernized.

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Figure 9. Old man -- probably a Khmer -- waits for Sihanouk to pass by. His manner of sitting, uncomfortable for a westerner, can be maintained for long periods. 1955.

Occupations: Khmer peasants are small land holders who grow wet rice, maize, and vegetables in a subsistence economy. Each family cultivates its own fields; tenant farming and sharecropping are rare. During the off season, from late fall to early spring, most Khmer peasants fish, cut wood, do odd jobs, or are temporarily employed in nearby towns. Non-farming jobs in the countryside, including those in the rubber plantations, usually are held by Chinese or Vietnamese. Since 1956, the Government has tried to undercut the economic position of Chinese and Vietnamese but with limited success.

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Figure 10. Khmer men. Man at right wears Sihanouk campaign placard. Scarves around the neck may be used as turbans. 1955.



Figure 11. Khmer family in Kampot Province.

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Figure 12. Khmer villagers wearing various types of western and native apparel. Note man wearing sampot with western-style suit jacket.

In urban centers, Khmers monopolize Government and clerical positions as well as manual labor occupations. Increasing numbers are entering commercial and professional fields as they slowly acquire needed skills and education.

2. Chinese

Number and Location: Estimates of the number of ethnic Chinese living in Cambodia as of 1967 range from 400,000 to 450,000 -- about six percent of the national population. One recent study enumerated 250,000 Chinese in the country, 50,000 partially acculturated Sino-Cambodians (naturalized Chinese or offspring of mixed marriages), and innumerable assimilated Sino-Cambodians. A growing proportion of the Chinese are native-born, and assimilation is drawing part of their natural increase into the Khmer population. Most immigrant Chinese Cambodians are from eastern Kwangtung, Fukien or Hainan and traveled overland to Vietnam and then into Cambodia. The period from 1946-1950 marked the last big wave of Chinese immigration; since 1952-1953, very few have been admitted into Cambodia.

The Chinese are largely urban-oriented. Almost 60 percent of all Chinese live in the three or four major towns in each province, e.g., the Chinese comprise nearly one-half of Sisophon's population, about one-fifth of Battam-

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bang's and about one-sixth of Phnom Penh's.* Just over one-third of all Chinese, about 135,000, live in Phnom Penh while another 12 percent live in the towns of Battambang, Kampot, and Kompong Cham.

The Chinese have always been considered a rather sedentary group, and population movement among the Chinese community is a recent phenomenon. As unemployment increases and the rupture of the Cambodian economy appears imminent, Chinese merchants are fleeing to Bangkok, Hong Kong, and Paris. Since July 1970, for instance, 2,000 ethnic Chinese have fled the Sisophon-Battambang town area to Thailand.

Most non-urban Chinese concentrations are in fishing colonies along the coast or on pepper plantations in Takeo and Kampot provinces. Other Chinese are widely dispersed throughout the southern half of the country as rice millers, brokers, village merchants and peddlers, and market gardeners. Few rural Chinese are rice farmers.

The Chinese can be divided into five major subgroups based on language and origin -- Teuchui, Cantonese, Hainanese, Hakka, and Hokkien:

<u>Group</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent of Total Chinese</u>
Teuchui	325,000	76
Cantonese	43,000	10
Hainanese	33,000	8
Hakka	14,000	3
Hokkien	<u>10,000</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	425,000	100

More than three-fourths of all Cambodian Chinese are Teuchui from southern Kwangtung. Less than 70 percent of urban Chinese are Teuchui; 90 percent of all rural Chinese, however, belong to this subgroup, working as itinerant peddlers or village shopkeepers. Cantonese, who constitute 10 percent of the total Chinese, are 84 percent urban with most concentrated in Phnom Penh, Battambang, and Kompong Cham. The Hainanese make up eight percent of the Chinese population, most living in Kampot Province. Large numbers moved to Phnom Penh (some 10,000 now live there)

* Estimate based on information acquired before 1970's mass influx of Khmer peasants into Phnom Penh.

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after the failure of many of the pepper gardens in Kampot Province. Their number is growing at Sre Ambel in Koh Kong Province as pepper plantations increase. A concentration of Hainanese also is found in Sisophon where they form almost half the Chinese population. The Hakka from Kwangtung, who form about three percent of the total Chinese population, are concentrated in Takeo Province but are also found around Virachei in Ratanakiri Province. They grow vegetables, cultivate a little rubber, and run small general stores. The Hokkien from Fukien, about three percent of the Chinese population, are almost entirely urban; only 10 percent of their number live in rural areas, most in Battambang Province. About 1,000 northern Chinese, mostly from Hupei Province, have come to Cambodia and all are urban residents of Phnom Penh.

Social Structure: The Chinese group themselves into compact quarters in Cambodian urban and rural communities in order to better preserve their ways of life and culture. They have been unobtrusive and generally apathetic to events in the Cambodian community. The social and political structure of the Chinese consists of a network of voluntary associations which provide communication and control channels for the community. Each of the five different dialect groups in Phnom Penh formerly had its own socio-political organization known as the "congregation". Elsewhere, several dialect groups would combine into a single congregation. In April 1958, the Cambodian Government abolished congregations, but other significant associations began to take their place. Sports clubs are today among the most active Chinese organizations; they organize a wide range of activities such as music, opera, folk dancing, literature programs, and adult education. They also administer mutual aid and settle disputes, therefore functioning as an important integrative force within Chinese communities. (Many Chinese groups have been split over the issue of Communism.)

Occupational guilds, based on dialect groups, defend the Chinese against Government trade restrictions. The Government has been attempting to dissolve them in order to weaken the economic-social cohesiveness of the Chinese community. School boards also play an important role in the Chinese community.

The basic Chinese social unit, of course, is the extended, patrilineal family. The family is essentially the most important instrument through which Chinese values and culture are preserved. Individual interests are subordinated to those of the family, and senior members of a family are consulted on all major decisions of its members.

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Figure 13. Rural Chinese family in village near Phnom Penh.

Place in Society: The Chinese hold very prominent positions in the economy of Cambodia, the wealthiest and most influential being found among the Cantonese. Ambitious and industrious, their economic success results in part from a pragmatic and utilitarian attitude. With the Vietnamese, they comprise the nation's mercantile and artisan middle class. They dominate businesses such as retailing, export-import, banking, rice-milling, rice-brokerage, entertainment, and bus-truck transport. They practically monopolize the ownership and management of the fishing industry. In contrast to their managerial positions, they also are manual laborers, often in jobs where the Cambodian peasant will not deign to work. Throughout the countryside, Chinese can be found as village merchants and are engaged in the trade, processing, and transport of rice and other agricultural products (they generally participate in the sale of produce rather than in the actual farming of the product). Chinese from northern China are often found as professionals such as dentists and teachers in the larger urban centers.

The Cambodian Government has attempted to gain more control over Chinese economic enterprises with policies restricting alien participation in certain activities. For example, since 1956 alien employment has been banned in eighteen occupations including taxi, bus, and truck drivers, moneylenders, rice merchants, jewelers, barbers, and printers.

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While measures such as this have caused anxiety in the Chinese community, adjustments have been made. Such restrictions have been circumvented by employing Khmer "fronts," by Chinese taking out naturalization papers, or simply by the Chinese financial "squeeze" tactics. The fact that Khmers are not trained or qualified in certain of these occupations strengthens the Chinese position.

The Chinese are largely excluded from the Khmer social order. They are resented by the Khmer for their wealth and clannishness, yet admired for their economic talents and are actually sought as marriage partners by Cambodians. Sino-Cambodians are considered a good hybrid, and this group enjoys a high status in Cambodian society. The Chinese have assimilated better than the Vietnamese as they adapt inoffensively to local environments. Yet the Chinese often form cultural islands and have few active social relations with non-Chinese.

The Chinese have little political power. Despite their wealth, they are excluded from politics as pure Chinese cannot become citizens unless they undergo expensive and demanding naturalization procedures. They may attain limited political power through bribery but generally are politically disinterested; they avoid politics, but if required to choose sides, are very opportunistic. They tend to support groups in power but may secretly aid the opposition. As of June 1970 Phnom Penh Chinese were reportedly politically neutral in their attitude toward the Lon Nol government. The majority, however, probably continue to respect Sihanouk and passively oppose the present government.

Religion: There are marked differences between Chinese and Khmer with regard to religion. The Chinese are eclectic in their approach to religion, confessing belief in Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucism, while also maintaining their traditional ancestor worship. The 10,000 Chinese Buddhists, all of whom live in Phnom Penh, are Mahayana Buddhists, which distinguishes them from the Khmer Theravada Buddhist believers. Chinese show no interest in Khmer Buddhist festivals, and few Chinese become monks.

Language and Education: Only two of the five Chinese dialects spoken in Cambodia are mutually intelligible (Teuchui and Fukienese). Mandarin, taught in all Chinese schools, is being developed as the lingua franca of the Chinese community. Since none of the five dialects is mutually intelligible with Mandarin, the transition is difficult. Lacking a common dialect and engaged in a multitude of economic

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enterprises, Chinese are more than any other group, bi- or multi-lingual. Fortunately, written Chinese can be read by literate persons of any dialect group, which helps unite the community.

Chinese send their children to their own private schools to learn Chinese language and customs.* Probably close to two-thirds of all Chinese students are enrolled in Chinese schools. Literacy is higher among the Chinese than among the Khmer. Formerly, Chinese students were sent abroad to North and South Vietnam, Communist China, Taipei, Singapore, Hong Kong, and Paris for higher education. This practice was severely curtailed, however, as Government provisions enacted under Sihanouk barred re-entry of any Chinese who remained abroad for longer than three months.

Chinese newspapers are prevalent; even in 1962-63 their circulation was estimated to be 28,700, three-fifths of the total newspaper circulation in Phnom Penh. Chinese radio programs and movie houses cater to the Chinese. Prior to assumption of power by the present government, it is believed that mass media was increasingly being dominated by those with pro-Communist feelings.

Dress: Urban and rural Chinese men commonly wear Western dress -- sport shirts, trousers, and leather shoes or sandals. Women also generally are clothed in Western attire, but they may wear Chinese dresses (cheongsams) or cotton jackets and trousers, depending upon their age, social class or the occasion.

Housing: Most urban Chinese, as well as those who are village merchants in the countryside, live in shophouses. These structures have a retail outlet or business office on the ground floor, and a family residence above the shops. Other Chinese houses in the cities are modified by Western influences, and rural homes are traditionally built on the ground instead of on posts in the style of Khmer homes. Also, Chinese houses are frequently larger than Khmer homes to accommodate the greater number of relatives under one roof.

* Presently, many Chinese schools are being used as refuge camps for the Vietnamese; these schools did not reopen for the 1970 fall term.

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Figure 14. Chinese students preparing for demonstration at Soviet Embassy in Phnom Penh. 1967.



Figure 15. Chinese shops and houses in town, Kompong Thom Province.

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3. Vietnamese

Number, Location and Movement: Cambodia's Vietnamese community, prior to the repatriation since April 1970 of between one-third and one-half of its members to South Vietnam, numbered some 300,000 to 400,000 and comprised between four and six percent of the country's population.* The size of the community always has fluctuated considerably as there has been, down through the years, much movement back-and-forth between Cambodia and South Vietnam, depending on prevailing political conditions in the two countries. The Vietnamese have been widely dispersed throughout the country, with major concentrations in: 1) the border provinces of Kompong Cham, Svay Rieng, and Prey Veng, 2) Phnom Penh and surrounding areas in Kandal Province, and 3) around the shores of the Tonle Sap, particularly in Kompong Chhnang Province along the lower part of the lake. Those in Phnom Penh -- who have remained largely isolated in their "Vietnamese Quarter" -- have been estimated to comprise as much as one-third of the city's population; now, of course, they comprise but a small fraction. In the border provinces, probably a majority of the Vietnamese have gone to Vietnam; in the provinces around the Tonle Sap, on the other hand, most are believed to have resisted repatriation and remained in their impoverished communities. Areas with secondary -- but sizeable -- Vietnamese communities are the provinces of Kratie, Battambang, Kampot, and Takeo; many are concentrated in the capital cities of these provinces.

* As of July 27, 1970, approximately 162,000 persons from Cambodia had sought refuge in South Vietnam, most of whom were ethnic Vietnamese. Vietnamese remaining in Cambodia, therefore, probably now number between 150,000 and 300,000.

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Although Vietnamese have lived in Cambodia for centuries, the heaviest influx occurred during the last quarter of the 19th century. The French Colonial Government encouraged them to emigrate from Vietnam to administrative positions in the Government and in commercial firms, and to work on the rubber plantations; indigenous Khmers were generally considered by the French to be indolent and unsuited for such work. Most immigrants came from Cochinchina, some from Tonkin, relatively few from Annam.

Many Vietnamese have migrated from Cambodia to South Vietnam during the past two decades because of Government discriminatory policies directed against "aliens". Tens of thousands of Vietnamese have been "repatriated" to South Vietnam since April 1970 when hostilities directed against them by the Khmers (including reported atrocities where hundreds were slaughtered) forced them to flee their homes. Many, reportedly dissatisfied with conditions in South Vietnam, have been returning to Cambodia. Other than for such cross-border migrations, only the Vietnamese fishermen, living on "floating villages" and houseboats on the Tonle Sap and Mekong waterways can be classified as migratory peoples; Vietnamese farmers, rubber tappers, and merchants are a sedentary lot.

Racial Characteristics: Although they have a slightly smaller and shorter body structure, there is little else in terms of physical appearance to set the Vietnamese apart from their Khmer neighbors. In dress and language, however, the Vietnamese are distinctive. The women are easy to identify by their ankle-length cotton dresses split to the waist over loose-fitting slacks. Men's attire is not so readily distinguishable from that of the Khmers although, like the women, they may wear the wide, loose-fitting trousers. In the fields, both sexes commonly wear a pointed fiber hat. The Vietnamese continue to speak their native tongue although most are conversant in Khmer. Vietnamese is the language most commonly used in the market place. Private Vietnamese schools are few, mostly limited to Phnom Penh where they have been run by Catholic priests. Most Vietnamese children attend state schools in which Khmer is the language of instruction.

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Figure 16. Vietnamese woman in detention camp. April 1970.

Social Structure: The Vietnamese have not assimilated with the Khmers but, instead, remain isolated in their own generally close-knit communities. Such segregation is enhanced by the Khmers who want little to do with the Vietnamese. Although the Vietnamese family is extended and patrilineal like that of the Chinese, family ties are believed to be weaker and less formal. Political and cultural institutions, moreover, are not so well developed. There is little political unification among the Vietnamese in Cambodia and little concept of belonging to a common ethnic community.

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Attitudes and Values: A history of intense antipathy between the Khmer and Vietnamese communities in Cambodia culminated in the mid-1970 massacre of hundreds of Vietnamese civilians by Cambodian Army (FANK) troops and the expulsion of many others to South Vietnam. Despite the friction between the two communities, however, day-to-day relations have otherwise been resolved -- albeit probably with a minimum of goodwill. Much of the Khmer resentment of the Vietnamese is based on real or imagined economic exploitation of the Khmer peasants by Vietnamese merchants. Strangely, there apparently is little resentment of the Chinese merchants. Vietnamese -- unless of mixed Khmer-Vietnamese parentage -- are not eligible for Cambodian citizenship and, hence, have virtually no political voice. Since the dissolution of the French colonial empire in Indochina and the creation of Cambodia as an independent country in 1949, the Government has practiced de facto legal and economic discrimination against the Vietnamese community. For example, the Government has enacted laws which have barred foreigners from a number of occupations, including fishing, which were dominated by the Vietnamese. The effectiveness of such discriminatory policies, however, has been minimized because of the presence of a sizeable Khmer minority in South Vietnam, vulnerable to similar practices by the Government of South Vietnam.

Although most Vietnamese in Cambodia probably would profess allegiance to one of the Vietnams rather than to Cambodia, the community is essentially apolitical. Apparent political apathy and lack of evidence of strong political ties with either Vietnam, however, has not prevented the community from being suspect in the eyes of the Government. Some officials feel that Communist penetration may be highly developed. Many of the Vietnamese fishermen on the Tonle Sap are believed to have supported the Communist cause for years and, reportedly, have protected and supplied North Vietnamese Army (NVA) troops in the area. An undetermined number of NVA troops were reported in August 1970 to be using islands in the Tonle Sap as sanctuaries.

Religion: The religion of the Vietnamese, too, is distinct from that of the Khmers. Although the majority of the Vietnamese are Buddhists, they belong to the Mahayana sect shared by their brethren in Vietnam which is distinct from the Theravada Buddhism practiced throughout the rest of Southeast Asia. According to a French vicar of the Roman Catholic cathedral in Phnom Penh, there were about 55,000 Catholic Vietnamese in Cambodia (other estimates are somewhat lower) prior to the extension of the current Indochina

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conflict into Cambodia. Most had lived in Phnom Penh and nearly all have now fled to South Vietnam. An estimated 20,000 to 40,000 Vietnamese in Cambodia belonged to the Cao Dai, an eclectic South Vietnam sect which draws on Buddhism, Taoism, Confucianism, and Christianity. It has between one and two million adherents in South Vietnam.

Occupations: The Vietnamese have played an important role in the economy of Cambodia, in much the same way that the Overseas Chinese have contributed to the economies of all Southeast Asian countries -- as shopkeepers and merchants, white collar workers, teachers, secretaries, clerks, and skilled craftsmen. The Vietnamese, however, have remained well down the socio-economic ladder from the Chinese and, unlike the Chinese, few are wealthy. Large numbers of Vietnamese have been employed in low-paying jobs -- as coolies, pedicab drivers, or at other unskilled labor. Many of those living in rural areas are impoverished. The 40,000 to 60,000 fishermen on the Tonle Sap, in particular, have been a poverty-stricken lot, usually heavily indebted to the Chinese businessmen who control the fishing industry. Many of the estimated 25,000 Vietnamese rubber tappers had been losing their jobs to Khmers and had been forced to emigrate to South Vietnam long before the current mass exodus.

Settlement Patterns and Housing: The Vietnamese have not assimilated with the Khmers but, instead, remain isolated in their own generally close-knit communities. Such segregation is enhanced by the Khmers who want little to do with the Vietnamese. Vietnamese settlements are concentrated along waterways. Many of the Vietnamese fishermen along the Tonle Sap live in "floating villages" supported by pontoons or sampans which, during the dry season, are moved away from the shores into deeper water.

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Figure 17. Market scene in Phnom Penh. Most of the merchants are probably Vietnamese.

4. Khmer Loeu

Number and Location: Khmer Loeu is a collective term which refers to the mountain, tribal peoples of Cambodia. These upland Cambodians are dispersed throughout the forests and grass-covered hills in the northeast, adjacent to both the Laotian and South Vietnamese border lands. Others are found in the mountainous areas north of Veal Renh, among the western Cardamomes mountains, and along the Thai border in the far north; but the majority of Khmer Loeu in these areas is no longer ethnically distinct. Assimilation to a Cambodian culture and way of life has greatly reduced the individuality of the Khmer Loeu west of the Mekong.

Estimates of the numbers of Khmer Loeu in Cambodia range between 30,000 and 80,000, comprising somewhat less than two percent of the total population. Three categories of Khmer Loeu can be distinguished according to linguistic characteristics. 1) The Malayo-Polynesian tribes, of which the Rhadé and Jarai are the largest, are found east of the Mekong in Stung Treng, Kratie, Ratanakiri, and Mondolkiri provinces. Their skin color ranges from light to medium brown; their hair is straight or wavy; and their builds are slender and short (5'2"). Most of the Rhadé, whose numbers

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total between 100,000 and 115,000, live on the Darlac Plateau within South Vietnam. The approximately 40,000 in Cambodia occupy areas principally in the eastern parts of Mondolkiri Province; some Rhadé, however, may have migrated farther westward. The Jarai also are predominantly a South Vietnamese tribe; only 16,500 out of their total of 200,000 occupy areas just to the north of the Rhadé in northeastern Mondolkiri and eastern Ratanakiri Province, as far north as the Laotian border.

(2) The Eastern Mon-Khmer peoples, which include the Stieng and M'nong tribes, physically resemble the Malayo-Polynesian tribes but are linguistically more similar to Mon-Khmer tongues. These Eastern Mon-Khmer tribes, who number 30,000-55,000, predominate in areas south and east of Kratie and in adjacent areas in South Vietnam. The M'nong, which include the Biet and Krol tribes, number about 15,000 in Cambodia and are found south of the main concentrations of Rhadé in eastern Mondolkiri; the Stieng, who number close to 40,000 in Cambodia, occupy low foothills of southern Mondolkiri.

(3) The Western Mon-Khmer include the Kui, Pear, Chong, Saoch, and other small tribal groups which are found west of the Mekong in the mountains of the Southwest or distributed across the northern provinces adjacent to the Thai border. They are related to the Khmers both linguistically and physically, and are readily assimilated into the Khmer way of life. The Kui, who number 10,000 and live interspersed with Khmers from Siem Reap to Stung Treng province, have adopted Buddhism and become almost complete Cambodianized. The Chong, who live along the Thai-Cambodian border in Battambang province, are also largely assimilated into Khmer society and have integrated with the Thais, who are found in the northern border regions. The Pear, along the northern slopes of the Cardamomes mountains west of Pursat have become "Cambodianized", and have adopted Buddhism to replace their animist practices. The Saoch, north of Veal Renh, are the most resistant to assimilation.

Place in Society: The Khmer Loeu are looked upon as inferiors by the Khmer who generally refer to them as "Phnong", that is, "savage." Until the end of the nineteenth century, many eastern Khmer Loeu were enslaved by the Cambodians. In recent years the Cambodian Government has used the Khmer Loeu as a labor force; each man over 15 years old is taxed a specific amount of labor per year, a practice which has created resentment on the part of the Khmer Loeu toward the Government.

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In an attempt to encourage the "Cambodianization" or "Khmerization" of the Khmer Loeu people, the Cambodian government undertook road building to increase the accessibility of the tribal areas and built new villages for the Khmer Loeu along these roads. The tribal people, however, generally resisted these "Khmerization" efforts.

Some tribes such as the Rhadé and Jarai, abetted by Vietnamese Communists, were already in active insurgency against the Cambodian Government before the current extension of Communist control over eastern Cambodia. In fact, tribal uprisings in 1968 led to the collapse of government control in extensive areas of the northeast. Under Communist control, the tribal people are certainly involved in forced labor to support the Communist military effort; Communist propaganda, however, may make the tribes initially feel that they have more autonomy than under the Cambodian Government.

Attitudes and Values: There is little, if any, sense of national consciousness among the Khmer Loeu. The family is preeminent as a focus of loyalty, and individuals are important primarily as members of a family group. Larger village ties are weak.

The attitude of the individual Khmer Loeu towards the Cambodian lowlander is probably one of mistrust and both probably share a mutual antagonism. The attitude of the Khmer Loeu toward an American might well be conditioned by his experience with the French or by contact with Americans prior to 1965 when diplomatic relations were severed between the United States and Cambodia.

Most Khmer are hospitable, though suspicious, towards strangers. Visitors to a tribal village should always first ask to see the village headman. The initial contact should be formal: hands should be clasped at head level as in prayer and a slight bow should be made. Religious areas, animals, and objects should be noted, and touching or harming these should be avoided. Houses should be entered only if escorted by a member of that household. If invited into a house, a jar of rice wine is generally brought forward; a prayer is then said and the jar itself becomes sacred.* The wine then is drunk through a straw and one must not refuse to drink. Generally, it is advisable to eat and drink what-

* Large jars stored in the house are sacred and should not be touched.

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ever is offered. Certain items are preferred items for barter -- salt, blankets, tobacco, shirts, costume jewelry, jackknives, lighters, and flashlights. Most Khmer Loeu also are aware of modern medicines and may ask for such items as aspirin and vitamins. Photographs should be taken only with permission. A quiet voice should be used as a sign of respect.

The Jarai are characterized as an industrious and reliable people. Though they may work slowly and methodically, young Jarai are generally eager for knowledge, learn quickly, and are willing to take direction. They are proud, independent people who have been known to be militarily aggressive. Highly suspicious of strangers, they may react violently to false moves. Age and wealth are bases for respect among the Jarai; age is honored by positions on village councils and wealth indicates that one has been favored by the spirits.

The Rhade, although reluctant to work too long or hard in "western" type work, can endure much physical strain. They can walk for days with heavy loads on their backs but, because of diet deficiencies, they do require rest and food at frequent intervals. They have a strong desire to learn and are especially adept at learning foreign languages. They see education as a means to better their communities, and desire to send their children to school. Young Rhade are encouraged to leave the village to study or work for outsiders. Although Rhade women usually disappear when a stranger arrives in the village, the tribe generally is hospitable to travelers.

The M'Nong have a reputation for belligerence. Excitable and aggressive at times, they may be calm and almost indolent in other situations. Under great stress, they retreat into the forest. They are polite and hospitable, but suspicious of a stranger's motives.

The highly independent Stieng are among the more warlike tribes, having been known to raid other villages for slaves periodically in the past. Outsiders consider them apathetic and incapable of sustained efforts but they work hard for themselves when it comes to hunting, fishing, and farming.

The Kui are a self-effacing and submissive tribe who readily adapt to new situations. They are intelligent, industrious and willing to learn new techniques. The French, for example, persuaded them to adopt wet-land farming.

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The degree to which the Communists will succeed in altering Khmer Loeu attitudes and values is uncertain. The Communists will use propaganda, pressures, and terror to gain the loyalties of the tribes. If the Communists are successful, established tribal patterns will be altered; the loss of traditional tribal freedoms then may lead to tribal reaction against the Communists.

Religion: Most Khmer Loeu are animists and believe that spirits can interfere in any facet of everyday life. Numerous methods of divination are used to consult spirits before acting; offerings and purificatory rites are performed to prevent calamities; animals are sacrificed to invoke help from the spirits. Taboo violations require certain kinds of sacrifices depending on their gravity. Chickens, for example, may be sacrificed to exonerate minor violations, while major infractions may require the sacrifice of a buffalo.

Among most Khmer Loeu tribes, no strangers are allowed in the village for seven days after its establishment. During this time food must be cooked under, rather than in the house and many other taboos are also in effect. An epidemic in a village also results in a taboo which prevents strangers from entering the village. Some sort of barrier is then found across the village entrance. Heads of monkeys, shackles of elephants, or spears suspended at the gate are usually indications that the village has been sealed off to outsiders. A tribal house is often taboo for three days after the birth of a child. This taboo is indicated by a closed door, and a bamboo pole with leaves fastened at the top is stuck in the ground in front of the house. Generally, a stranger breaking such a taboo is not subjected to reprisal, unless he repeats the violation.

There is little evidence that missionary activity has had any substantial effect among the Khmer Loeu. French Catholic missionaries have worked with the Jarai since the nineteenth century but even here conversions have been few (in January 1961, there had been 500 recorded Jarai converts). Intolerance of the non-Christian tribesmen toward the convert is the principal obstacle to conversion. The convert no longer will partake in traditional tribal religious activities, and his abstinence is said to incur the wrath of the spirits, endangering the well-being of the entire village.

Through its program of sending Buddhist monks to live in tribal villages, the Cambodian Government has succeeded in converting many among the western tribes to Buddhism. Remnants of spirit worship, however, remain alongside Buddhist

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doctrines.

Language and Education: Linguistic diversity is great among the Khmer Loeu. They speak a number of mutually unintelligible languages, some of which belong to the Mon-Khmer linguistic family while others are related to the Malay-Polynesian language family. Both Mon-Khmer tribal groups, the Western (Kui, Saoch, Pear, Chong) and the Eastern (M'nong -- Krol and Biet -- and Stieng), speak mutually unintelligible Mon-Khmer languages. Because their languages are related to the Khmer language, however, understanding of the national language is somewhat facilitated. Khmer is spoken as a secondary language among the western minorities with varying degrees of proficiency. The Malayo-Polynesian tribes of the northeast (Rhadé and Jarai in particular) speak Malay-Polynesian tongues which resemble Cham. For them, adoption of Khmer is more difficult and more strongly resisted.

In the northeast, those tribesmen who worked for the French or served in the French Army learned to understand that language. Some of the older tribal people still may have some comprehension of spoken French. Others who have been in contact with Americans in Vietnam may have learned English. A few also have picked up some Vietnamese. However, the Khmer Loeu are still isolated from any formal academic, language training. The French attempted to establish a school system in Khmer Loeu territory, but their educational program was severely limited by lack of teachers, facilities, and a remote location.

Dress: Personal dress and decorations set the Khmer Loeu apart from the Cambodian. Piercing and elongation of the ear lobes is common and heavy ivory earplugs or wooden discs may be inserted. Copper and brass bangles on wrists and ankles are worn by most upland tribes. The extraction or filing down of teeth has been common as has the traditional tattooing of arms, chest, and forehead. All such practices are diminishing, however, as contact with outsiders increases.

Most men wear loincloths, sometimes decorated with fringe or colored bands. Women wear long cotton or grass cloth skirts, often belted in the front. The chest usually remains bare, although tunics sometimes are worn. Blankets are added when weather turns cool. Special ceremonial clothing such as thigh-length coats or long shawls, is worn at formal affairs. Turbans are popular among certain tribes on festive occasions. Ready-made clothes are becoming more popular and western-style shorts and skirts are increasingly being worn. Men seem especially to favor Western T-shirts. No



Figure 18. Khmer Loeu tribesman. Note pierced ears and heavy copper bangles on forearms.

shoes or sandals are worn. Children commonly wear no clothes until the age of six.

Occupations: The Khmer Loeu practice slash-and-burn cultivation of dryland crops. They supplement this by hunting, fishing, raising pigs and chickens, and collecting plantlife from the forest. The Rhade are accomplished hunters of boar and wild deer. Some eastern tribes fish by spreading powder from poisoned roots on the water.

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Figure 19. Khmer Loeu tribesman smoking pipe made from copper tubing. Ivory plug has been inserted in his pierced ear.

The slash-burn farmer clears a field at the close of the rainy season and leaves it to dry until the end of the dry season when it is burned off. He then plants such crops as dry rice, corn, cotton, tobacco and/or yams and then generally leaves them untended. The crops grow during the rainy season and are harvested four to six months later. The field is then burned over once again at the end of the dry season and the cycle is repeated. After three years, the soil usually is exhausted and fields must be moved to new locations.

Many Stieng are employed on the rubber plantations at Mimot and Snoul. The Jarai and Kui, excellent iron-forgers, make axes, knives, spearheads, and machetes as a supplementary enterprise. Tribes of the southwest depend more on subsidiary economic enterprises to supplement their slash-burn agriculture than those tribes of the east. Livestock and poultry are raised; gum is collected; animal hides are cured. Some tribal members of the southwest also work as farm laborers.

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Figure 20. Khmer Loeu youths in area northeast of Kratie. Note western-style shirts on boys at left.



Figure 21. Khmer Loeu hunter with cross-bow and poisoned arrows.

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Figure 22. Rhadé man dressed in native loincloth and shirt decorated with polychromatic designs. Steps cut into a log provide ladder to porched area of house.

The Kui are a good example of a tribe which, for the most part, has made the transition from slash-burn to the wet rice farming of their Khmer neighbors. This again emphasizes the growing acculturation of Western Mon-Khmer groups to the Khmer way-of-life.

Settlement Pattern and Housing: Khmer Loeu villages are widely scattered, autonomous, self-sufficient, and generally smaller and more compact than their lowland counterparts. They average less than 100 persons per village and usually contain only about twelve single family houses or a few multi-family longhouses. The location and arrangement of houses within a settlement is decided by the village elders after consulting the wishes of the spirits. Villages are often fortified by fences of trees, hedges, walls of earth, or stockades.

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Figure 23. Rhade women dressed in native wrap-around skirts and close-fitting blouses.



Figure 24. Land where slash-burn agriculture has been practiced.

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Figure 25. Khmer Loeu tribal peoples engaged in native crafts. Thin strips of rattan are used in basket making, a popular native industry.



Figure 26. A Kui girl with crude cotton gin; the cotton will be used to weave cloth, a popular native enterprise.

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The Khmer Loeu have a wide variety of house types. Ranging from light thatched houses with bamboo frames to more substantial, heavily thatched houses with thick log frames. Most houses (except among the M'nong) are built on piles from 4-10' high; platform porches are common and serve as work areas; bamboo ladders or steps cut into logs are used to reach these porch areas. The longhouses of the Eastern Mon-Khmer and Malayo-Polynesian tribes are divided into compartments, each inhabited by a matri-lineally linked nuclear family. There also is a common room for family gatherings and the receiving of gifts. There are no windows and no openings for smoke to escape. Other buildings include huts for rice storage, chicken coops, pig pens, cattle and buffalo pens; many of the animals live under the house.



Figure 27. Kui woman carrying water in village north of Siem Reap. Log ladders are used to reach porch areas.

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Figure 28. Khmer Loeu village. Areas under and around dwellings serve as catch-alls for variety of housewares and furnishings, and provide living areas for pigs, chickens and dogs.



Figure 29. Headman's house in Jarai village, five miles from Vietnamese border. Pigs forage for food under house.

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Figure 30. Khmer Loeu tribal dwellings in Mondol-kiri. Thatched roofs reaching almost to ground give appearance of haystacks.



Figure 31. Rhade village in Mondolkiri Province, near Vietnam border. Village comprises some twenty longhouses, each sheltering three families. Small rice granary in front of each house.

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Western Mon-Khmer, who formerly resided in longhouses, now inhabit single family dwellings similar to those of the Khmer. They also are built on piles, and bamboo, rattan, straw, and fronds are used in constructing thatched roofs and walls. Though houses may differ in size and elevation among specific Khmer Loeu tribes, the basic construction materials, compartmentalization, and organization of space remain the same among all Khmer Loeu peoples.

Population Movements: Tribal movement in normal times appears to be fairly localized. When the slash-burn agriculture has depleted the fertility of its soils, the entire village may move to a new area, generally not too far distant from the old site. In an effort to supplement their agricultural food supply, tribal hunters may travel many miles of jungle trails in the general vicinity of their village. Their knowledge of these trails should make them excellent guides in a given locality.

Many Khmer Loeu served with the French army; some have been with the Cambodian forces in frontier outposts; seasonal work occasions some movement into towns. Furthermore, many Khmer Loeu have been moved to resettlement areas by the Cambodian Government; many of those "resettled" may have drifted back to the hills.

In the present unsettled situation in eastern Cambodia, many tribal villages probably have moved to more remote areas to escape being the target of military action. Some tribal people had earlier escaped northward into southern Laos, and others may have moved back into the highlands of South Vietnam.

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Because most Khmer Loeu tribes engaged in intervillage warfare before being pacified by the French, most are still familiar with both offensive and defensive forms of jungle warfare. Crossbows with poisoned arrows, rattan lances, kris-like swords, knives, and many kinds of improvised personnel booby traps are the traditional weapons. Tribesmen are resourceful and adaptable in the jungle and are excellent trackers and interpreters. Their stamina is impressive; most can sustain cross-country marches over difficult terrain. Although some tribes in adjacent areas of South Vietnam already are proficient in the use of light weapons (the AR .15 rifle, sub-machine gun, carbine), they are much less proficient in using heavier weapons (M-1 or Browning Automatic Rifle) and more sophisticated devices such as mortars, explosives, and mines.

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5. Cham-Malays

The Chams and Malays are two distinct peoples of Indonesian stock, but because of their common religion and culture, they have settled together and are commonly considered a single group. The Cham-Malays number 80,000 in Cambodia, slightly more than one percent of the country's population. They are concentrated principally along the Mekong River from Phnom Penh to Kratie, along the Tonle Sap River, and on the coast near Kampot. Some also are found in the Pursat and Battambang areas.

Although they have adopted many features of Khmer culture, the Cham-Malays are regarded by most Cambodians as culturally and religiously inferior. There is, however, little apparent discrimination directed against them. They are full-fledged citizens and enjoy all rights, including the right of religious freedom.

The Cham-Malays of present day Cambodia are strict Muslims and adhere to the Koranic marriage laws which prohibit marriage with other groups. By proscribing intermarriage, their communities remain isolated and complete assimilation is impossible. Mosques mark their settlements; Chruai Changvar near Phnom Penh is their spiritual center.

Under the Sihanouk regime, the Cham-Malays enjoyed special royal favors despite their minority status. The supreme chief of the Chams was appointed by Prince Sihanouk and became a member of the Royal Court. Recently, a sense of ethnic consciousness has developed among the Cham, and the resultant feeling of distinctiveness may effect their presently amiable relations with the Cambodians.

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The Cham language is a mixed tongue of Malayo-Polynesian stock (the Rhade and Jarai speak languages related to Cham -- 75 percent of the Rhade vocabulary, in fact, is analogous to Cham). It is basically Malay in vocabulary, interspersed with Sanskrit, Arabic, Vietnamese, Chinese, and Khmer words. While their traditional language is used at home, Malay and Arabic are commonly used in reading, writing, and for religious purposes. Khmer is generally spoken by Chams, although in a pidgin form. Cham-Malays maintain schools organized for studying both the Koran and Malay and Arabic languages.

The main item of Cham-Malays clothing is a sarong knotted at the center of the body. Women also wear black or dark green tunics with tight sleeves, open at the throat. Men wear shirts and ankle-length sarongs. Flamboyant colors and patterns such as red and green stripes are popular. Women are not veiled but do wear scarves on their heads.

Chams are found in a limited range of occupations. Trade and industry employ them in urban areas, and rural Chams are farmers, fishermen, cattle breeders, and operators of water transport and commerce facilities. Chams are noteworthy in the fields of cattle breeding, trading, butchering, and tanning, as they will slaughter cattle which Buddhist Khmers will eat but not kill.

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Figure 32. Cham-Malays. Man in foreground wears striped ankle-length robe. This striped pattern is characteristic of the dress of this ethnic group. Head coverings are commonly worn.



Figure 33. Vietnamese and Cham-Malay merchants at Mekong River market in Phnom Penh.

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- CAMBODIA

CHAPTER III - THE ECONOMY

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
A. General	1
B. Natural Resources	2
C. Agriculture	2
D. Industry	5
E. Fishing and Forestry	7
F. Employment and Labor	8
G. Finance and Investment	8
H. International Economic Relations	9
I. American Business Presence	10

Photographs
(Abbreviated Titles)

<u>Figure No.</u>		<u>Page</u>
1	Smuggler near South Vietnam border	2
2	Water wheel	3
3	Rice storage bank	4
4	Harvesting jute plant	5
5	Cotton weaving machines	6
6	Power plant and water tower	6
7	Fishing village	7
8	Sea port	9

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- CAMBODIA

CHAPTER III -- THE ECONOMY
(January 1970)

A. General

Cambodia is a developing nation of 6.7 million people. Average population density is low, but concentrated in the rice-producing river valley areas. Agriculture dominates the economy, employing about 85 percent of the people and furnishing over a third of total national production. Gross national product (GNP) amounted to \$577 million* in 1966, or about \$100 per person. Real economic growth has been a modest 4 to 5 percent annually. The minimum needs of the population have been satisfied, and starvation is practically unknown.

The economic power of the peasantry is diffused and insignificant. The two most powerful economic factions are the government and a small coterie of wealthy merchants, most of whom are Chinese. Economic development has been hampered because the interests of the two groups have differed. The government needs the money and talents of the merchants to finance, establish, and manage the new industries needed for diversification and growth. The merchants, however, have generally preferred the quick return from investments in commerce and real estate.

The war in South Vietnam has stimulated a substantial flow of commodities into and out of Cambodia. The value of the transfers has been approximately balanced. Saigon beer and US PX goods are sold in Cambodia, for example, while livestock, vegetables, and other Cambodian products are consumed in South Vietnam. The largest and most persistent commodity movement has been the purchase by the Vietnamese Communists of 10,000 to 20,000 tons of Cambodian rice annually for their forces in southern Laos and along the Cambodian border with South Vietnam. The rice sales and other cross-border trade appear to have had only a minor effect on the Cambodian economy.

* Converted from 32 billion riels at the official exchange rate of 55.5 riels = US \$1.

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Figure 1. Smuggler with goods near South Vietnam Border

B. Natural Resources

Cambodia's most important natural resource is the Mekong and Tonle Sap River system, which provides inland transportation, seasonal irrigation, a large supply of fish, and a potential for hydroelectric power development. A vast expanse of forests provides wood products and the only indigenous source of fuel. Cambodia has few known mineral resources, and mining is largely nonexistent at present. There are some limestone deposits in Kampot Province, phosphate deposits in Battambang and Kampot Provinces, traces of zinc, copper, and fluorine in Kompong Speu Province, deposits of precious stones in Battambang Province, and possibly exploitable bauxite in Mondul Kiri. Iron and coal deposits are indicated in the Phum Rovieng area, but these have not proven to be valuable enough for exploitation. A French firm recently has been granted the concession to explore for suspected offshore oil deposits.

C. Agriculture

Cambodian agriculture remains largely primitive, employing traditional techniques, crude implements, and

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the labor of humans and animals to produce little more than subsistence crops from small farms of less than 2 hectares. The main "wet season" rice crop is planted in July and August and harvested from November to January. Output is largely dependent on the amount and timing of the monsoon rains, and farmers often suffer severe losses from adverse weather. The benefits of irrigation and flood control are acknowledged, but only about 5 percent of the cultivated acreage has been irrigated. The principal constraints on water control projects have been their high cost and long construction period. One major project under way, however, is the Prek Thnot Dam. This \$27-million dam, under the joint sponsorship of the Cambodian government and the Mekong Committee, is scheduled for completion in 1973 and initially will provide 18,000 kilowatts (kw) of electricity and irrigation for over 5,000 hectares of land.

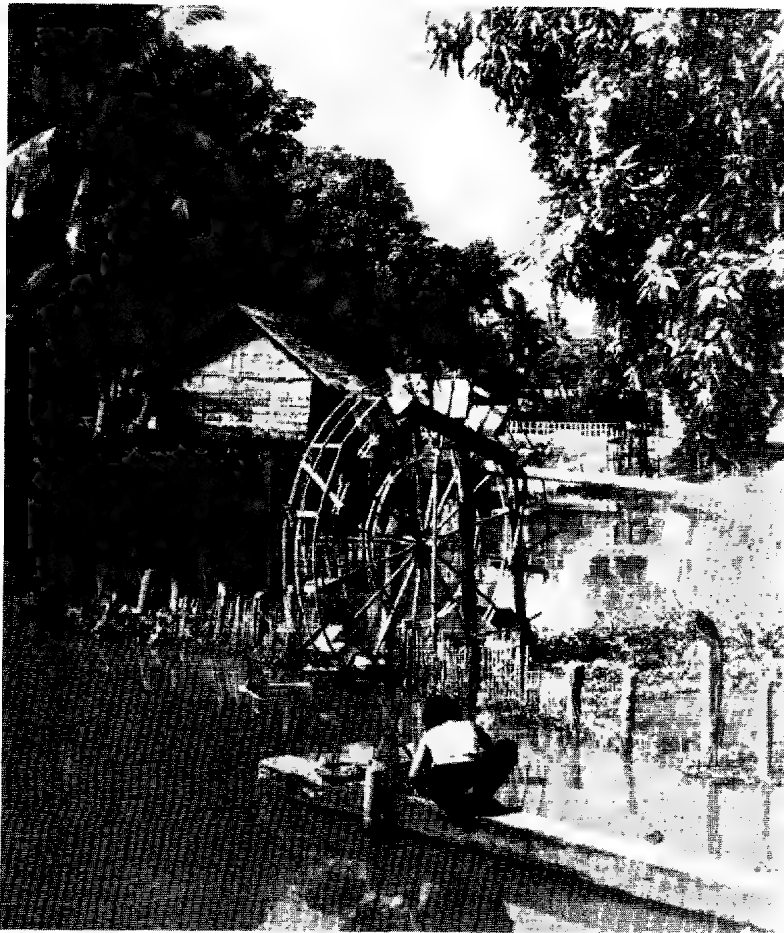


Figure 2. Water wheel used in rice irrigation.

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Rice is Cambodia's principal food, its most valuable export, and its most important crop, occupying about 85 percent of the cultivated area, but Cambodian rice yields are among the lowest in the world, averaging only about 1 metric ton* per hectare. Production of paddy (unhusked rice) varied between 2 and 3.25 million tons a year in the 1960's; weather was a key factor in the variations of output. The 1967/68 crop was a record high, but drought reduced the 1968/69 crop to 2.5 million tons of paddy. Preliminary indications point to a record 1968/70 crop.



Figure 3. Rat-proof rice storage bank.

Although Cambodia approaches a one-crop economy, it raises many other crops on a smaller scale. Several, such as rubber, corn, and pepper, are grown largely for export. Fruits, vegetables, oil seeds, and textile fibers are grown principally for internal consumption. Cambodia is largely self-sufficient in food production but imports wheat, flour, and dairy products.

* All tons are metric.

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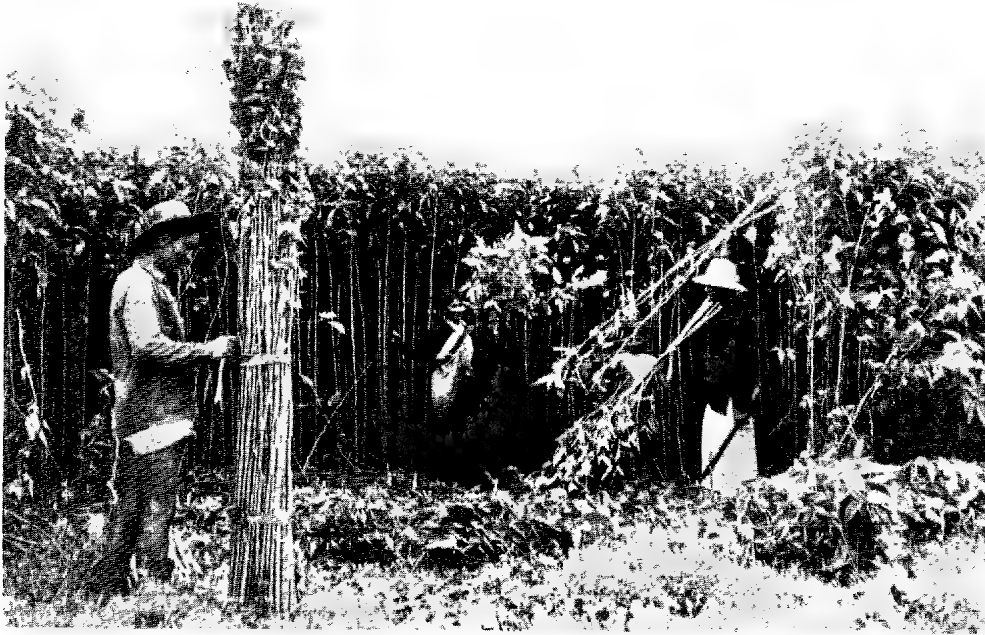


Figure 4. Harvesting jute plant.

D. Industry

The Cambodian government has advanced a program of industrialization only in the last two decades. The handicaps to this program are immense: Cambodia has few raw materials for exploitation, a small market, a poorly developed infrastructure, no money or security markets, limited investment capital, an unskilled work force, and a sluggish bureaucracy. Most of the more than 3,700 industrial units are little more than small shops producing a variety of goods for local consumption. The government has been responsible for the construction and operation of the few relatively large, modern manufacturing plants because it has been the only entity capable of undertaking the large investment and, even so, has relied on foreign assistance to share the financing. Products of these larger plants include cement, plywood, textiles, fertilizers, paper, jute bags, glassware, petroleum products, and alcoholic beverages. The pace of industrialization has been increasing, with many of Cambodia's major plants being completed in the last three years, but Cambodia remains dependent on imports for most consumer goods and all but simple manufactured products.

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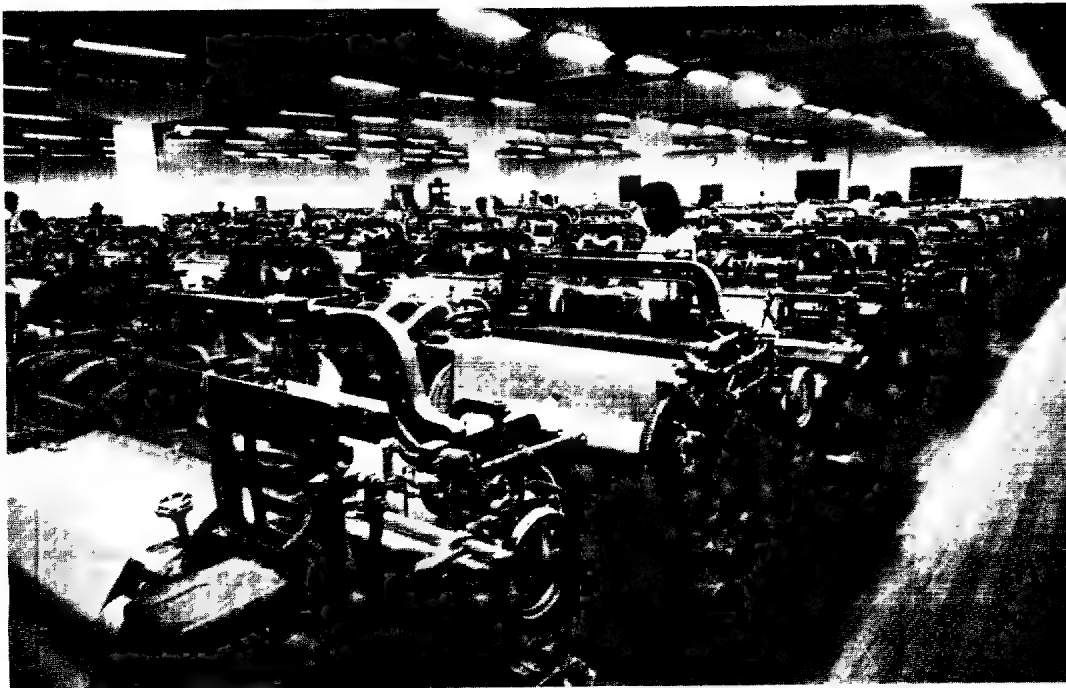


Figure 5. Weaving machines at cotton textile factory.

Electric power is a particularly weak link in Cambodia's economic infrastructure. Installed generating capacity, which is concentrated in the larger towns, is estimated to



Figure 6. Power plant and water tower, Prey Veng.

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be about 100,000 kw. About two-thirds of capacity is publicly owned, but the lack of a distribution system requires many of the plantations and manufacturing plants outside the Phnom Penh area to have their own private generators. Even Kompong Som, the proposed site for much of Cambodia's future industry, does not yet have a power system adequate to supply existing needs.

E. Fishing and Forestry

Fish is the Cambodian's main source of animal protein, and subsistence fishing is part of almost every farmer's activity. Most commercial fishing is done by native Vietnamese in the Tonle Sap area, but there is also some ocean fishing. A few small facilities to can fish have been built and more are planned, but fishing will probably remain a minor industry.



Figure 7. Fishing village (Kompong Kleang)

More than 70 percent of Cambodia's land area is forested, consisting mainly of tropical broadleaf species. Over 15,000 square miles of forest have been set aside as reserves, and commercial exploitation of the remainder is under government control. The production of charcoal, the

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principal native fuel, is a major industry. Logging operations have been expanding and exports of rough timber and sawed wood have been growing, stimulating Cambodian hopes that wood products will become an important foreign exchange earner.

F. Employment and Labor

Since the populace is largely rural and engaged in subsistence agriculture, only a small portion of the population regularly works for somebody else. The weather cycle creates seasonal unemployment for part of the farm population, some of whom work at menial jobs in the off season. The small urban work force lacks productive skills and is not wage-oriented, but neither is it troubled with widespread unemployment. Unions are few, and there is little incentive for labor organizations because management tends toward paternalism and there are few labor disputes. Although unemployment is not widespread, the number of youths educated in recent years exceeds the economy's capacity to employ them in jobs they will accept. They tend to remain unemployed rather than work in agriculture or "blue-collar" occupations.

G. Finance and Investment

The Cambodian budget for 1969 envisaged expenditures of 7,565 million riels, an increase of 7 percent over 1968, but actual expenditures were slightly over 8,000 million riels. Defense, general administration, and economic development are allocated roughly equal thirds of the budget. Customs duties, income taxes, and business taxes provide two-thirds of budget receipts. Constantly increasing expenditures and a reliance on revenue sources dependent on the fate of the rice harvest result in chronic deficits, but they are usually small and/or easily financed.

Cambodia is undergoing moderate economic growth with relative financial stability. Inflation has been controlled --averaging about 3 percent a year--with minimal increases in the cost of food* and basic necessities. There were only minor disruptions of the price structure as a result of the recent (August 1969) devaluation of the riel.

* Except for a few months of 1969 when the rice market manipulations of profiteers wrought drastic price increases.

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Banking, foreign trade, and certain production monopolies have been nationalized since 1963. Measures enacted in early 1970 brought a very limited denationalization in these areas, but developmental investment in Cambodia continues, by necessity, to remain in the hands of the government. Lack of a money market, an underdeveloped infrastructure, and a climate of uncertainty created by the nearby Vietnam war dampen private incentive for investment in Cambodia vis-a-vis alternative areas.

H. International Economic Relations

Cambodia must rely heavily on imports to supply not only most manufactured goods but also the inputs for industrial development. The country is completely dependent on imports for crude petroleum, iron and steel products, and machinery. France remains the leading supplier, but China, Japan, Malaysia, and Singapore are other major sources. The value of imported commodities averages about 3.5 billion riels annually, about 600 million riels more than exports.

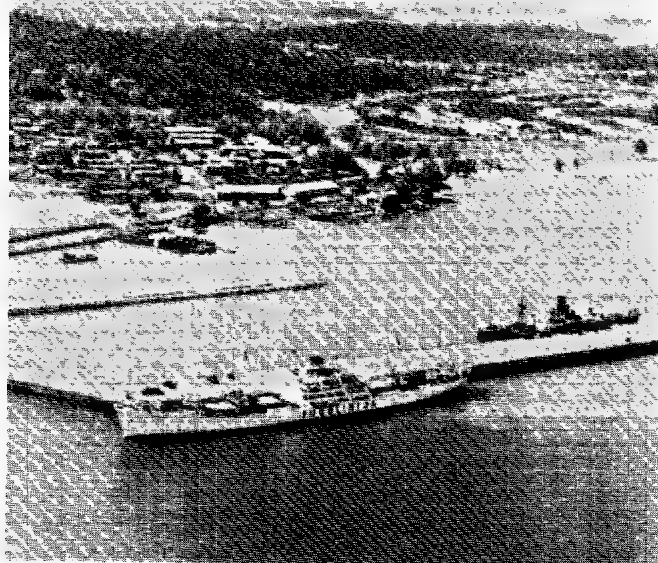


Figure 8. Sea port (Kompong Som)

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Almost 80 percent of the value of Cambodia's exports is derived from rice, rubber, and corn, all highly susceptible to the vagaries of the weather and world markets. There is a continuing effort to develop tourism and exports of fish and wood products as additional foreign exchange earners. Cambodia's major export markets include South Vietnam, Senegal, Hong Kong, China, and France. South Vietnam was the leading purchaser of Cambodian products in both 1968 and 1969.

Although foreign aid is needed for increasing the rate of economic development, Cambodia has been cautious about accepting aid. The government generally has succeeded in obtaining grants instead of loans lest the economy become burdened with heavy repayment obligations. During 1956-69, Cambodia received a total of 4.7 billion riels of economic credits and grants from Communist sources, two-thirds of which came from Communist China. Drawings on Free World economic aid during 1965-68 totaled 2.2 billion riels, of which 50 percent came from France and 40 percent from Japan. Most of Cambodia's major industrial plants were partially financed by France or the Communist countries.

I. American Business Presence

Cambodia's lack of profitable investment opportunities has discouraged active participation by American firms, and the Cambodian political climate has emphasized the need for caution from both sides. Currently, the American commercial presence in Cambodia apparently is limited to a dozen or so semipermanent representatives of various sales and banking interests and some participation in petroleum marketing.

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- CAMBODIA

CHAPTER IV - TRANSPORTATION

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
A. Introduction	1
B. Roads and Trails	2
C. Railroads	20
D. Water Transport	
1. Inland Waterways	25
2. Seaports and Shipping	29
E. Air Transport	35
F. Cross-Border Movement	37
25X1 	41
<u>Tables</u>	
25X1 1. 	
Highway Bridges	43
Ferry Facilities	45
2. Reading List	47

Photographs
(Abbreviated Titles)

Figure No.

1	Khmer-American Friendship Highway	3
2	Route 1 west of Svay Rieng	4
3	Laterite road near border	4
4	Earthen road of Tonle Sap	5
5	Dry season view of Route 19	5
6	West season view of Route 19	6
7	Secondary road near Laos	7
8	Road near Lomphat	8
9	Concrete encased steel truss bridge	9

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<u>Figure No.</u>		<u>Page</u>
10	Wooden decked bridge near Siem Reap	10
11	Bridge between Route 13 and Siem Pang	10
12	Makeshift bridge near Poste Deshayes	11
13	Bridge near Kompong Speu	12
14	Bridge over Tonle Sap River	13
15	Ramp leading to ferry across Mekong	14
16	Ferry crossing Tonle Sap River	15
17	Ferry facility across Tônlé Kong	15
18	Rainy season view of ford	16
19	Oxcarts on highway north of Kampot	17
20	Heavily loaded bus	17
21	Crude foot bridge	19
22	Trail, part of "Sihanouk Trail"	20
23	Phnom Penh-Poipet rail line	21
24	Railroad bridge	22
25	Phnom Penh-Kompong Som rail line	23
26	Bridge near Takeo	24
27	New railroad station	24
28	Barges moored on Mekong	26
29	Passenger and cargo ferries	27
30	View of Se San	28
31	Phnom Penh port	30
32	Southern part of Phnom Penh port	31
33	Aerial photograph	33
34	Kompong Som	34
35	Main pier at Kompong Som	34
36	Pochentong Airfield	37
37	Siem Reap airfield	38
38	Airfields	39
39	Airfields	40
40	Rice smugglers	41

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CHAPTER V - TRANSPORTATION

(June 1970)

A. Introduction

Cambodian transportation facilities are underdeveloped, unevenly distributed, inadequately maintained, and of limited capacity. They have been able, however, to satisfy most of the modest requirements of the country's predominantly agricultural economy and to facilitate a significant movement of supplies to Vietnamese Communist forces in the Cambodian-South Vietnamese border area. In recent years, roads have surpassed inland waterways as the principal means of moving cargo and passengers. Waterways remain an integral part of the transportation system even though rapid silting has limited the navigability of many of them. Railroads rank third in significance; opening of the line between Phnom Penh and the port of Kompong Som (Sihanoukville) in late 1969 reversed their decline of the recent past. Domestic shipping and civil air facilities are limited; most maritime and air commerce is handled by foreign vessels and aircraft.

Existing transportation facilities and equipment are in fair condition, at best. Surfaced roads are badly potholed and those that are unsurfaced are unusable much of the year; railroad equipment is largely antiquated; waterways are hampered by heavy silting; port capacities are limited; and the inventory of aircraft on the one domestic airline is low. Thus, despite an improvement program, the capability of the transport system to handle increased traffic will be modest for some time to come.

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Only the railroads and, to a lesser extent, the airfields remain relatively unaffected by the country's seasonally adverse weather. During exceptionally heavy rains, even sections of railroad may be flooded and traffic disrupted for short periods, and at such times unpaved landing strips also may be rendered temporarily unserviceable. Rainy weather has a particularly pronounced disrupting effect on road traffic, especially

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along extensive stretches of secondary roads, which may become impassable because of mud or, in the mountains, landslides. Lowland sections of hard-surfaced roads, although occasionally in disrepair, normally are trafficable the year round. Diminished stream flow during the dry season severely limits navigability on waterways.

B. Roads and Trails

Cambodia's nearly 3,200 miles of road could not accommodate substantial increases in commercial or military traffic. The network, originally designed by the French during their colonial reign to link the producing hinterlands of Laos and Cambodia with the port of Saigon, reflects that function and does not now adequately serve the country as a whole. While connecting major population centers in the south-central and southeastern parts of Cambodia and linking the provincial capitals in outlying areas with Phnom Penh, it does not effectively tap the sparsely populated northern plains or the mountainous fringes of the northeast and southwest, where extensive tracts are roadless. Nevertheless, overall road density of the network is about 0.045 miles per square mile, somewhat greater than in neighboring Laos and Thailand.

The importance of road transport has increased significantly in the past 10 years. This change in status is related directly to the development of the port of Kompong Som and the shift of Cambodia's foreign trade from the Saigon-oriented Mekong waterway system to land transport routes leading to Kompong Som. The Khmer-American Friendship Highway (Route 4), built with US aid and completed in 1959, carried all exports and imports between Phnom Penh and Kompong Som until the rail line between these points was opened in 1969. (Heavy traffic has resumed in recent months because of disruption of rail traffic on the Phnom Penh - Kompong Som line by Communist forces.) Even though well engineered, heavy rains have caused the serious deterioration of stretches of this road. Nonetheless, the Khmer-American Friendship Highway is in better condition than roads in other parts of the country where traffic is slowed by narrow widths, lack of shoulders, poor surfaces, sharp curves, poor drainage, and inadequate bridging.

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Figure 1. Khmer-American Friendship Highway (Rt. 4) between Kompong Som and Phnom Penh.

A total of 1,530 miles of road in Cambodia are bituminous surfaced; 675 miles are surfaced with crushed stone, gravel, or laterite; 360 miles are improved earth; and 615 miles are unimproved earth. Bituminous roads generally are well drained and all-weather, although some sections in the lowlands may be subject to flooding during the rainy season. To minimize this danger, major lowland roads are constructed on embankments that may range up to 20 feet above the surrounding terrain. Stone, gravel, and laterite roads, while more prone to interruptions during the wet season than bituminous roads, are trafficable most of the year. Laterite roads tend to be dusty during dry weather, and with time they acquire a corrugated "washboard" surface; during the rainy season, they may become dangerously slippery. Unimproved earthen roads and cart tracks may be jeepable in dry weather; but in rainy weather they turn into ribbons of deeply rutted mud and become trafficable only by oxcart. Because of generally inadequate base and surface materials, all roads deteriorate rapidly, and even the best cannot support sustained heavy traffic. Maintenance is hampered by inadequate funds, poor construction materials (most must be imported), insufficient maintenance equipment, and the lack of skilled labor.

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Figure 2. Route 1 west of Svay Rieng.



Figure 3. Laterite road near South Vietnam border.

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Figure 4. Graded earthen road on plain north of Tonle Sap.



Figure 5. Dry season view of Route 19 west of Boung Long, Ratanakiri Province.

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Figure 6. West season view of Route 19.

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Figure 7. Secondary road near Laos border east of Mekong in wet season.

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Figure 8. Road near Lomphat, Ratanakiri Province.

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Major roads range up to 24 feet in width; shoulders may be as wide as 10 feet, enough to permit their use by animal-drawn vehicles and bicycles. Secondary roads are up to 16 feet wide, with shoulders rarely wide enough to permit the passage of any type of vehicle. Shoulders along many of these roads, in fact, may be totally obliterated by encroaching roadside vegetation. Furthermore, the roadways may be etched with deep ruts, a result of poor drainage along and away from the road.

In addition to generally inadequate surfaces and widths, traffic on Cambodia's roads is hindered by a multitude of streams that must be bridged, ferried, or forded. The road network contains more than 1,800 bridges that exceed 20 feet in length.



Figure 9. Concrete encased steel truss bridge between Siem Reap and Sisophon.

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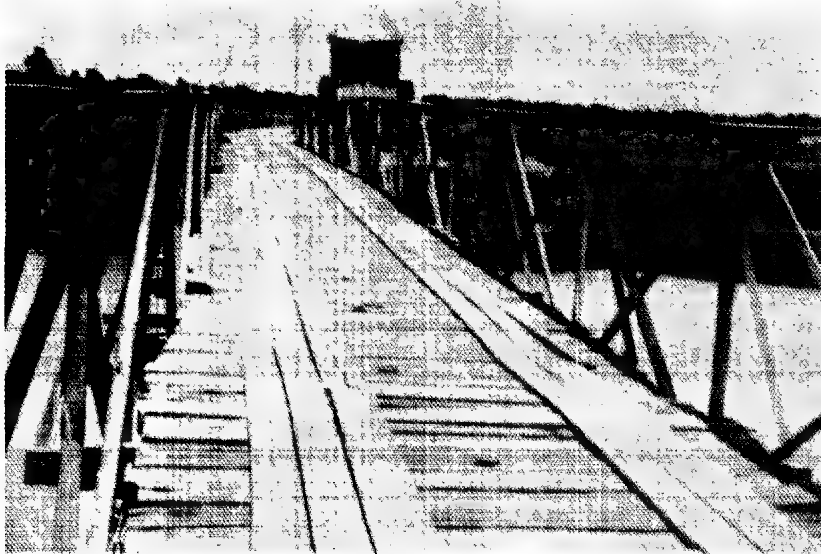


Figure 10. Wooden decked bridge near Siem Reap.



Figure 11. Rickety bridge on secondary road between Route 13 and Siem Pang.

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Figure 12. Makeshift bridge along secondary road near Poste Deshayes in Mondolkiri Province.

Most are single-lane timber structures; with load capacities under 5 tons, [REDACTED]

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[REDACTED]. Such bridges, however, are being replaced by more substantial structures. Most crossings more than 100 feet in length are spanned by truss or deck-girder bridges. Of steel or reinforced concrete construction, they are up to 16 feet wide and have capacities to 15 tons. All 42 bridges on the Phnom Penh - Kompong Som highway surpass these limitations; and have widths ranging up to 23 feet and capacities to 22 tons. The longest structure in Cambodia is the 10-span, 2,328-foot reinforced concrete and steel girder Sihanouk Bridge across the Tonle Sap river at Phnom Penh. [REDACTED]

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Figure 13. Bridge on Khmer-American Friendship Highway near Kompong Speu.

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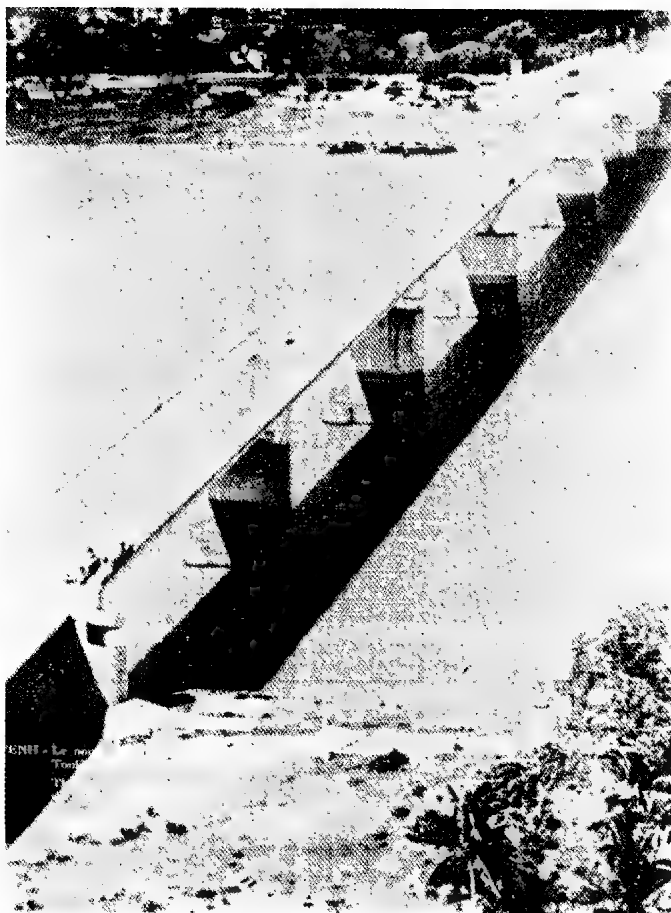


Figure 14. Ten-span, 2,328 foot bridge over Tonle Sap River at Phnom Penh.

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No bridge spans the Mekong. Major ferry crossings are located at Phum Prek Neak Luong (Route 1) and Kompong Cham (Route 7). Crossings are made by diesel-powered ferries with capacities of 40 tons. Phnom Penh's control of its trans-Mekong territory hinges on its control of these two major ferry facilities. A 40-ton ferry crosses the Tonle Sap river near Kompong Luong (Route 6) and a 25-ton capacity ferry crosses the Tônlé Kong at Stung Treng (Route 13). Secondary crossings of the Mekong, as at most other stream crossings, are piled by crude rafts with capacities under 3 tons, powered by outboard motor or by pole. Such small craft are hampered by strong currents during most of the rainy season. The major crossings are equipped with floating loading ramps to facilitate docking at all water levels.



Figure 15. Ramp leading to ferry across Mekong at Tonle Bet, opposite Kompong Cham (Route 7).

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Figure 16. Ferry crossing Tonle Sap River near Kompong Luong (Route 6.)



Figure 17. Ferry facility across Tônlé Kong at Siem Pang.

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Elsewhere, landing slips are of packed earth. Fords replace bridges at stream crossings of most tracks and some secondary roads. They may be unusable by motor vehicles during the rainy season when currents are strong, bottoms are soft, and entrances and exits slick with mud. There are no tunnels on the Cambodian road system.

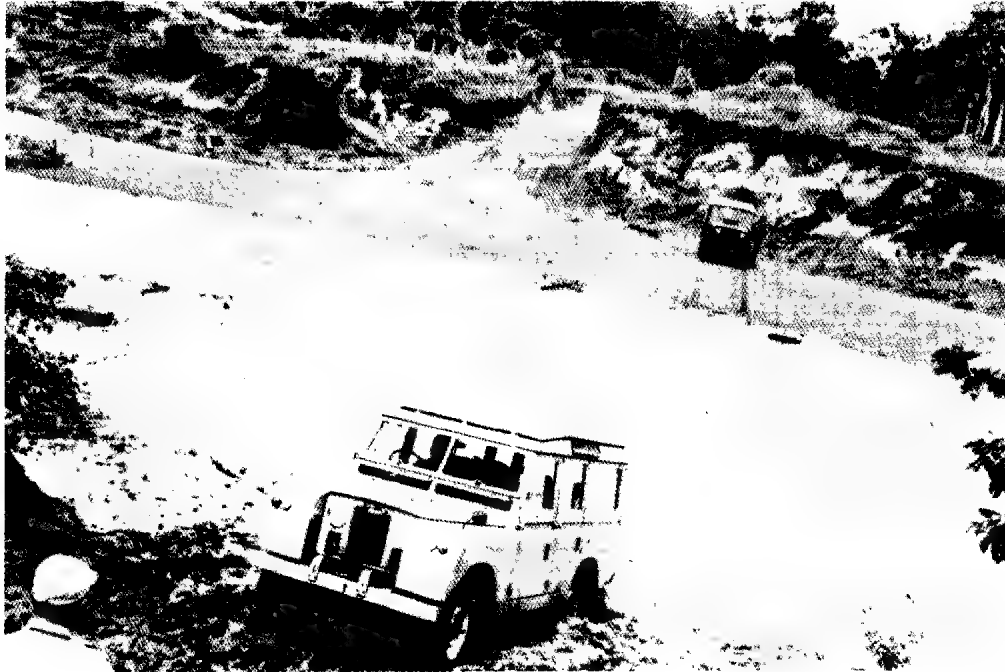


Figure 18. Rainy season view of ford on secondary road between Route 18 and Siem Pang. Note muddy exit.

As of 1969 the inventory of motor vehicles in Cambodia included 23,552 automobiles, 10,731 trucks and busses, and 92,440 motorcycles and motorbikes. Most motor vehicles are in poor condition because of the beating they take on the poor roads and the paucity of repair facilities.

Although vehicular traffic is light, countless pedicabs and a variety of motorized two-wheeled vehicles may jam traffic in Phnom Penh, and slow-moving oxcarts and other animal-drawn conveyances may create traffic jams on rural roads. Busses jammed with passengers and a wide variety of cargo contribute to traffic problems in both city and countryside.

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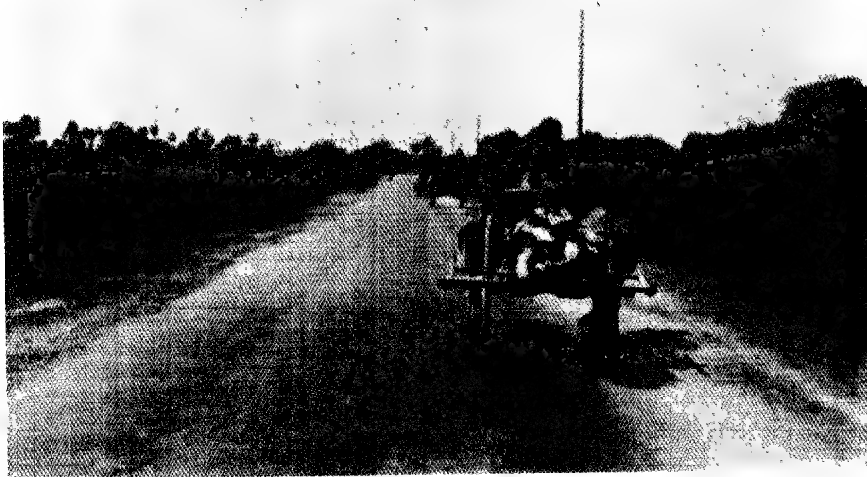


Figure 19. Ox carts on highway north of Kampot.

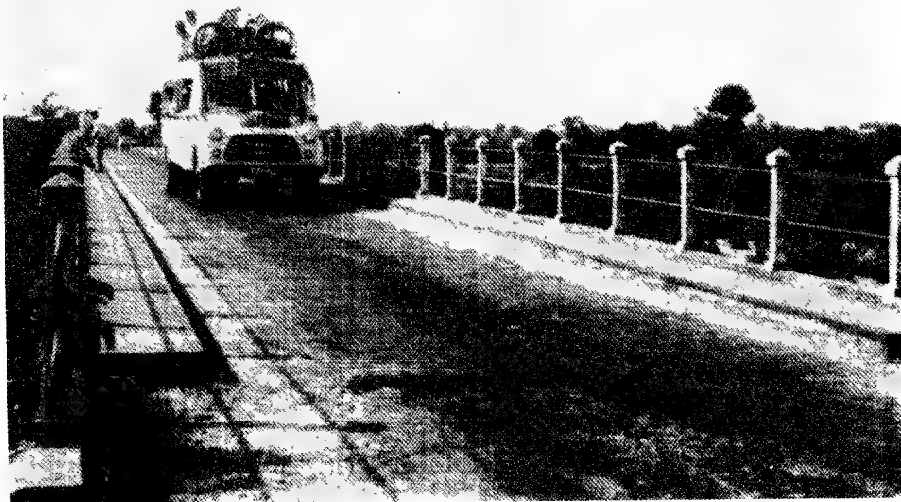


Figure 20. Typically heavily loaded bus on highway south of Phnom Penh.

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Main roads radiating from Phnom Penh, the center of the road system, are numbered clockwise commencing with the Phnom Penh - Saigon highway (Route 1). Continuing clockwise, numbers are then assigned first to main branches, then to laterals, and finally to minor branches. Directional, regulatory, and warning signs are posted along all main highways and concrete kilometer markers indicate distances from major urban centers. Information on sign posts, formerly written in both French and Cambodian, now appears only in Cambodian.

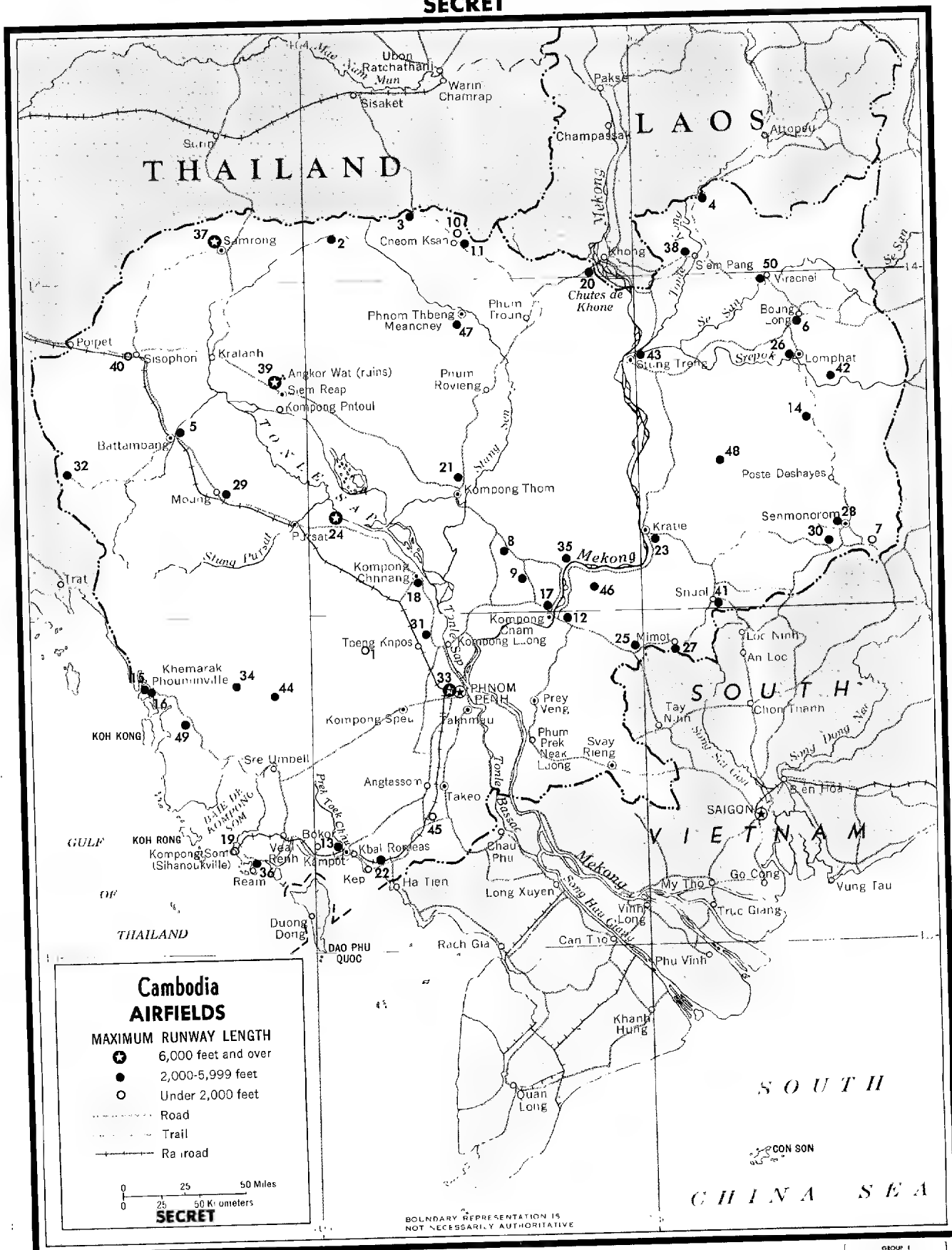
Off-road vehicular movement is limited by a number of factors. In lowland areas, roads are usually built on embankments formed by evacuating soil from both sides of the road and heaping it toward the center several feet above surrounding terrain. Consequently, steep-sided borrow pits, 3 to 5 feet deep and several feet wide, extend along both sides of such roads. These borrow pits usually contain water, even in the dry season and, unless spanned by temporary bridges, bar off-road movement.

Bypassing road sections that may be washed out during the rainy season is a problem because flooded rice paddies commonly extend up to the borrow pits. In the dry season, off-road vehicular movement in the ricelands is possible, but the dikes separating the paddy fields may have to be breached; many are too high to be negotiated by even a four-wheel-drive vehicle with high center clearance.

Most river channels--even in the dry season--can be crossed only with difficulty because of the depth of water and/or steep banks. Long detours may be required to find a sufficiently shallow ford with a suitable entrance and exit. Steep banks may be soft, and a winch may be essential to surmount them. In the forested areas of the lowlands and in the extensive wooded tracts of the mountains, vehicular movement for any distance off the road or track is usually out of the question.

In addition to the roads and cart tracks, innumerable trails crisscross most of the country. Most of these trails are not likely to be trafficable for significant distances by motor vehicles, even under favorable climatic conditions. Dikes that separate rice paddies are used as footpaths in the lowlands during the wet season, and after the crop is harvested and the fields are dry, foot traffic forms random patterns across the fields. In the mountains, local trail networks -- unusable by motor

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GROUP 1
EXCLUDED FROM AUTOMATIC DOWNGRADING
AND DECLASSIFICATION

AIRFIELDS OF CAMBODIA

AIRFIELD NAME	LOCATION		RUNWAYS			
	N	E	Length	Width	Surface	Condition
1 Amleang.....	11 47 32	104 21 06	1950'	100	Graded earth.....	Fair.
2 Anlong Veng.....	14 13 38	104 06 42	3936	131	Graded earth.....	Good.
3 Ban Pnai.....	14 21 20	104 43 40	4000	100	Graded earth.....	Good.
4 Ban San Keo.....	14 26 50	106 23 30	2300	100		
5 Battambang.....	13 05 33	103 13 40	4101	131	Asphalt.....	Good.
6 Bung Lung.....	13 43 50	106 59 16	3937	100	Laterite.....	Good.
7 Camp Le Rolland.....	12 20 27	107 21 25	1968	65	Graded earth.....	Fair.
8 Chamkar Andong.....	12 21 10	105 13 05	3820	100	Graded earth.....	Fair.
9 Chamkar Leu.....	12 13 20	105 17 26	3937	100	Graded earth.....	Good.
10 Choam Khsant.....	14 13 25	104 56 34	1750	120	Graded earth.....	Good.
11 Choam Khsant 2.....	14 10 05	104 59 02	3281	82	Graded earth.....	Fair.
12 Chup.....	11 57 11	105 33 52	4760	165	Laterite.....	Good.
13 Kampot.....	10 38 00	104 09 55	2624	164	Laterite.....	Fair.
14 Kaoh Nhek.....	13 04 50	107 02 45	3250	90	Graded earth.....	Good.
15 Khemarak Phuminville.....	11 36 53	102 59 47	3000	130	Graded earth.....	Fair.
16 Khemarak Phuminville SE.....	11 36 00	103 00 21	3800	150	Graded earth.....	Good.
17 Kompong Cham.....	12 01 41	105 26 43	3936	131	Asphalt.....	Good.
18 Kompong Chhnang.....	12 14 18	104 39 52	5430	220	Laterite.....	Fair.
19 Kompong Som (Sihanoukville).....	10 37 24	103 30 03	1968	66	Pierced steel plank.....	Good.
20 Kompong Sralau.....	14 04 10	105 46 21	4100	80	Graded earth.....	Fair.
21 Kompong Thom.....	12 47 00	104 56 10	2100	120	Laterite.....	Fair.
22 Kompong Trach (Pong Toek).....	10 31 47	104 22 16	4750	135	Laterite.....	Good.
23 Kratie.....	12 29 18	106 03 38	3610	165	Laterite.....	Good.
24 Krakor.....	12 32 09	104 09 10	6000	200	Graded earth.....	Fair.
25 Krek.....	11 46 40	105 56 23	3520	165	Laterite.....	Fair.
26 Lomphat.....	13 30 34	106 58 40	3350	130	Graded earth.....	Fair.
27 Mimot.....	11 48 43	106 11 37	3609	131	Graded earth.....	Good.
28 Mondolkiri City.....	12 27 47	107 11 30	4160	100	Graded earth.....	Fair.
29 Moung.....	12 43 52	103 29 52	3600	500	Graded earth.....	Fair.
			4200	500	Graded earth.....	Fair.
30 Orang.....	12 20 04	107 09 28	2320	85	Graded earth.....	Fair.
31 Oudong.....	11 52 56	104 42 00	5800	150	Laterite.....	Fair.
32 Pailin.....	12 51 20	102 35 30	3936	80	Graded earth.....	Fair.
33 Phnom Penh (Pochentong).....	11 32 46	104 50 52	9840	131	Concrete.....	Good.
			3822	139	Concrete.....	Good.
34 Phumi Choam SLA.....	11 35 55	103 32 57	2720	150	Graded earth.....	Fair.
35 Prek Kak.....	12 18 20	105 34 55	3937	164	Graded earth.....	Fair.
36 Ream Sihanoukville (Phumi Angk).....	10 34 38	103 38 28	3937	115	Asphalt.....	Good.
37 Samrong.....	14 10 33	103 29 56	6420	50	Bitumin (mix-in-place).....	Good.
38 Siem Pang West.....	14 06 45	106 22 42	2880			
39 Siem Reap.....	13 24 38	103 49 05	8366	150	Concrete.....	Good.
40 Sisophon.....	13 34 47	102 56 58	1148	131	Graded earth.....	Fair.
			820	131	Graded earth.....	Poor.
41 Snuol.....	12 03 43	106 25 51	2300	125	Graded earth.....	Good.
42 Sre Mat.....	13 21 00	107 10 05	4000	100	Under construction.....	Poor.
43 Stung Treng.....	13 31 40	106 01 03	5380	131	Under construction.....	Poor.
44 Tadak Pong.....	11 31 30	103 47 24	5500	135	Graded earth.....	Fair.
45 Tani.....	10 47 33	104 42 52	1640	100	Graded earth.....	Fair.
46 Ta Pao.....	12 05 05	105 41 58	2330	130	Graded earth.....	Good.
47 Thbeng Meanchey.....	13 45 35	104 58 33	3937	131	Laterite.....	Good.
48 Tnaot.....	12 56 06	106 29 10	3000	75	Graded earth.....	Fair.
49 Trapeang Rung.....	11 22 55	103 15 10	4000	150	Graded earth.....	Good.
50 Virachei.....	13 58 26	106 48 46	4100	80	Graded earth.....	Good.

vehicles in any season -- may be the only surface communication system. Such trails generally follow ridgelines, but they may descend to traverse streambeds in intermontane valleys. Slopes on some trails are so steep that ascent or descent is arduous, and many mountain trails become slick and impassable, even by pack animals, during the rainy season. Supplies for Communist forces have been moved for some years across the border from Cambodia along a system of trails. These trails are traversed by porters who transfer the supplies from trucks or boats. Way stations are dotted 8 to 12 miles apart along the trails.



Figure 21. Crude foot bridge across stream near Mimot.

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Figure 22. Trail, part of "Sihanouk Trail", in northern Stung Treng Province.

C. Railroads

The Cambodian railroad system comprises about 412 miles of single-track, meter-gauge line. Unlike the fairly extensive network in neighboring Thailand, which taps most of its regions, Cambodia's rail system serves only a small area. [REDACTED]

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[REDACTED] The system ranks well behind roads and inland waterways both in extent, and in the volume of cargo and the number of passengers carried. This disparity was substantially narrowed, however, by the completion in 1969 of the rail link between Phnom Penh and Kompong Som. Cambodia's railroads are owned and operated by the Cambodian Railways, a government agency. A 1969 year-end inventory listed the following equipment: 24 steam locomotives, 13 diesel-electric locomotives, 81 passenger coaches, 696 freight cars (including flatcars and side-dumping freight cars), and 40 tank cars. Much of this equipment -- including the 13 diesel-electric locomotives -- has been imported from France and West Germany since 1966 for use on the Phnom Penh - Kompong Som line.

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A 239-mile line between Phnom Penh and Poipet, on the Cambodia - Thailand border west of the Tonle Sap, crosses flat, seasonally inundated plains for most of its length. It taps the rich ricelands of Battambang and Pursat provinces and carries much of the harvest to Phnom Penh. Both passenger and cargo traffic on this line are declining because of increasing truck competition.

The roadbed of the Phnom Penh - Poipet line is built well above normal floodwater limits. Even so, traffic occasionally may be interrupted during the rainy season when surging flood waters, fed by heavy rains, undermine the road bed. Passing tracks are insufficient. Grades and curves are gentle. Some 175 steel or reinforced concrete bridges span streams along the line.

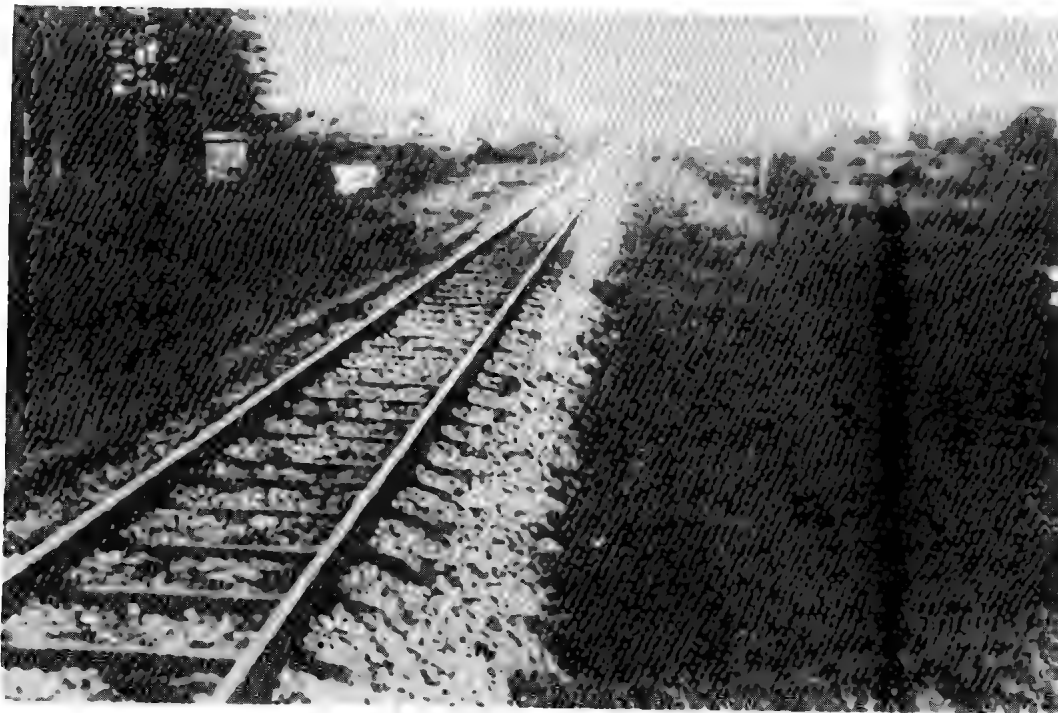


Figure 23. Phnom Penh - Poipet rail line near Sisophon.

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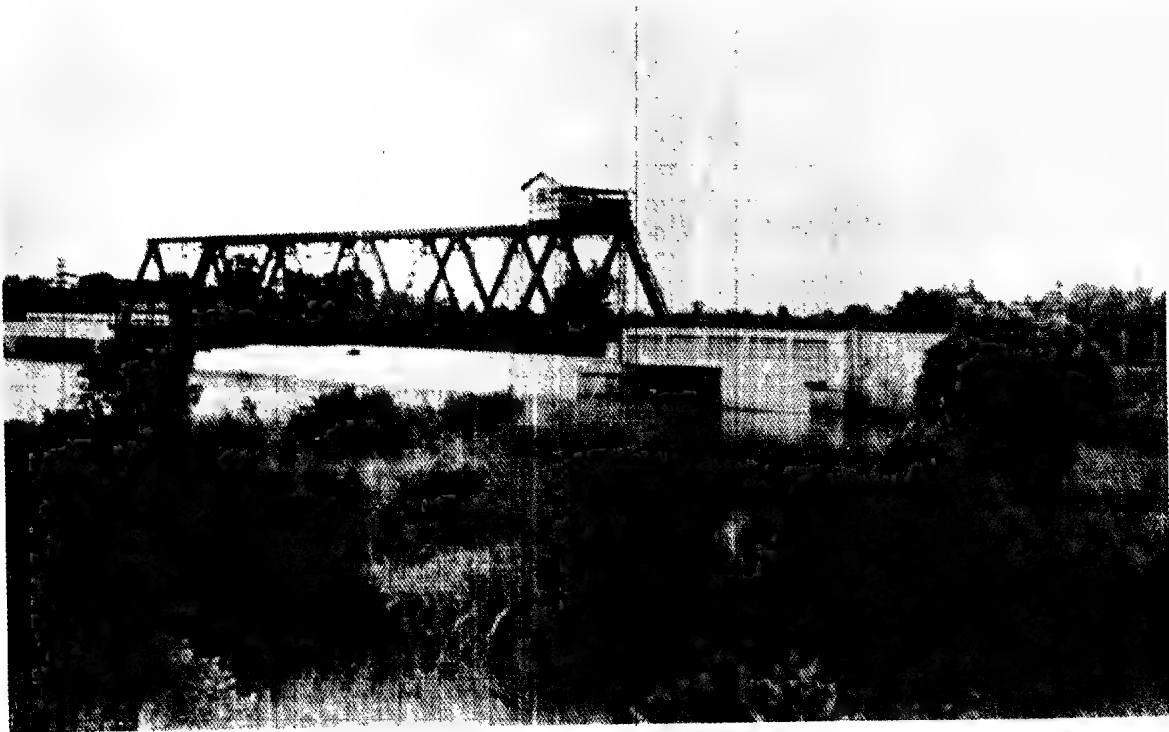


Figure 24. Railroad bridge west of Sisophon. Note guard tower.

There is daily service between Phnom Penh and Sisophon, but operations in the 30-mile section from Sisophon to the Thai border have been irregular in recent years, apparently because of sabotage by Khmer Serei guerrillas in the border region. A line on the Thai side of the border links with Bangkok. A gap of several hundred yards straddling the border separates the two lines. After the Thai and Cambodian governments resumed diplomatic relations in May 1970, efforts began to connect them to provide an alternate route to the Phnom Penh - Kompong Som rail line for the supply of strategic commodities such as motor fuels and lubricants. As of early June 1970, several bridges on the Phnom Penh - Kompong Som side had been destroyed by Communist forces and all traffic halted. A 4 1/2-mile spur extends from the Phnom Penh-Poipet line to a wharf on the Tonle Sap river at Phnom Penh; here cargo is transferred to boats which distribute it elsewhere in Cambodia or carry it via the Mekong waterways system to Saigon.

The last section of track in the 168-mile Phnom Penh - Kompong Som rail line was laid in September 1969.

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Freight and diesel oil shipments from Kompong Som to Phnom Penh began in late October, and passenger service between the two terminals was inaugurated in late December. Like the Phnom Penh - Poipet route, the new line crosses generally flat to gently rolling terrain; grades and curves are gentle. Construction in the southwestern sector of the route was hindered by unfavorable terrain. At the southern end of the Chaîne de l'Éléphant, west of Kampot, deep cuttings through rock were required and extensive embankments, up to 20 feet high, were needed across poorly drained terrain near Veal Renh. Construction difficulties were compounded in this sector by the settling of ballast in the soft and swampy ground. More than 100 bridges and innumerable culverts and drains have been constructed along the route. Most short bridges are of reinforced concrete with longer structures of steel truss construction.

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Figure 25. Phnom Penh - Kompong Som rail line south of Takeo.

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Figure 26. Bridge on Phnom Penh - Kompong Som line near Takeo, typical of shorter spans on this line.

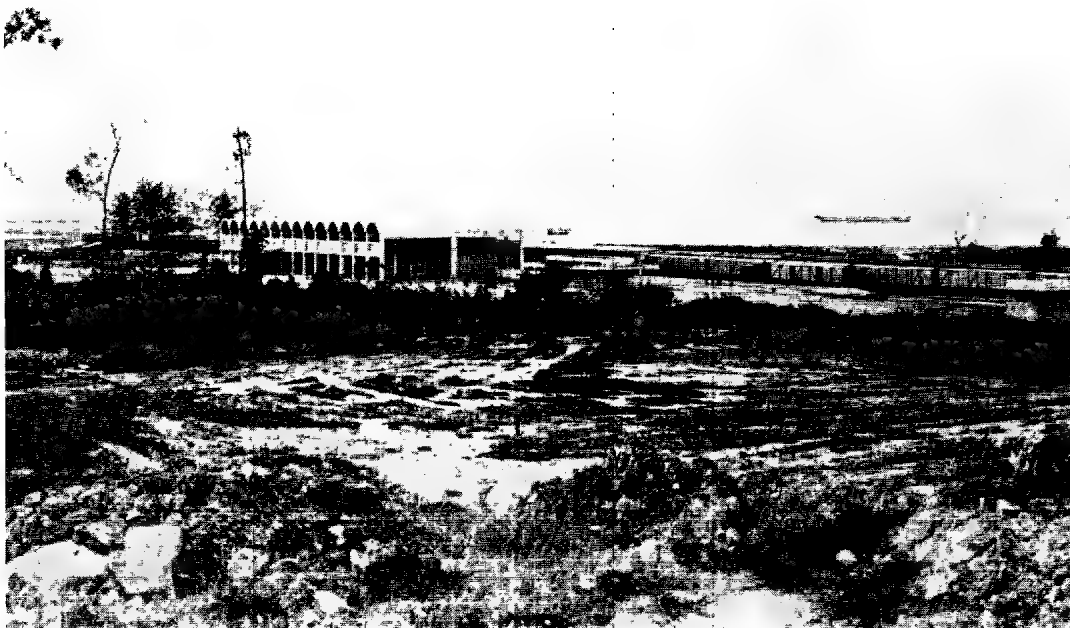


Figure 27. New railroad station at Kompong Som. Harbor in background.

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D. Water Transport

1. Inland Waterways

The relative importance of inland waterways in Cambodia's transportation system has diminished in recent years because of heavy silting, the periodic closure of the Mekong international shipping by South Vietnam, and the development of road and rail connections to Kompong Som. Some 1,200 miles of waterway, more than 90 percent of which is within the Mekong and Tonle Sap systems, are navigable during the high-water period (July to November); this is reduced to about 1,000 miles during the low-water period.

Flowing southward through Cambodia for about 315 miles, the Mekong River is an integral part of the Cambodian transportation network. Along with its tributaries, it forms important communication links with South Vietnam, and these streams have been used to transport supplies to the Vietnamese Communist forces. Much of the Mekong in Cambodia is encumbered with rapids which limit its use to small crafts; other limitations on navigability include swift currents during high water and shallow waters with numerous shoals during the dry season. During the period of high water, lowlands adjacent to the southern sections of the river in Cambodia are flooded, and then shallow-draft craft can move over extensive areas. The Mekong is navigable the year round to Phnom Penh by vessels of 13.8 foot draft; craft drawing 10 feet can ply upstream to Kompong Cham; those drawing no more than 4 feet can reach Kratie in the dry season. Rapids and winding channels in the 117-mile section between Kratie and the Laos border generally preclude commercial navigation; cargo usually is off-loaded onto trucks at this point for movement farther north. The few small craft that do ply these treacherous waters are prevented from entering Laos by the Chutes de Khone (Khone Falls), just north of the border. No locks or dams encumber navigation along the Cambodian Mekong and no bridges span it.

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Figure 28. Barges moored on Mekong at Kratie.

The Tonle Bassac parallels the Mekong between Phnom Penh and the South Vietnam border. Its waters permit passage of craft with drafts of 8.2 feet during high water and 4.9 feet during low water. Sampans, junks, and barges serve local settlements. The Monivong Bridge, which was rebuilt after its collapse in 1964, carries Route 1 across the river on the southern outskirts of Phnom Penh. It has an underbridge clearance of 14 feet at high water.

Vessels drawing 15 feet during high water and 8.2 feet during low water can negotiate the 65-mile stretch of the Tonle Sap River between Phnom Penh and Kompong Chhnang. During high water, vessels drawing 13 feet can navigate all of the river and much of the lake, and steamers up to 1,000 tons ferry passengers on scheduled runs between the capital and ports on the lake. During low water, however, shallow waters in the area where the lake drains into the river limit traffic to flat-bottomed native craft that must be poled through the mud. (Rice from the northwestern provinces of Battambang and Pursat and fish from the lake must be transported to Phnom Penh by railroad or truck during low water.) Only one struc-

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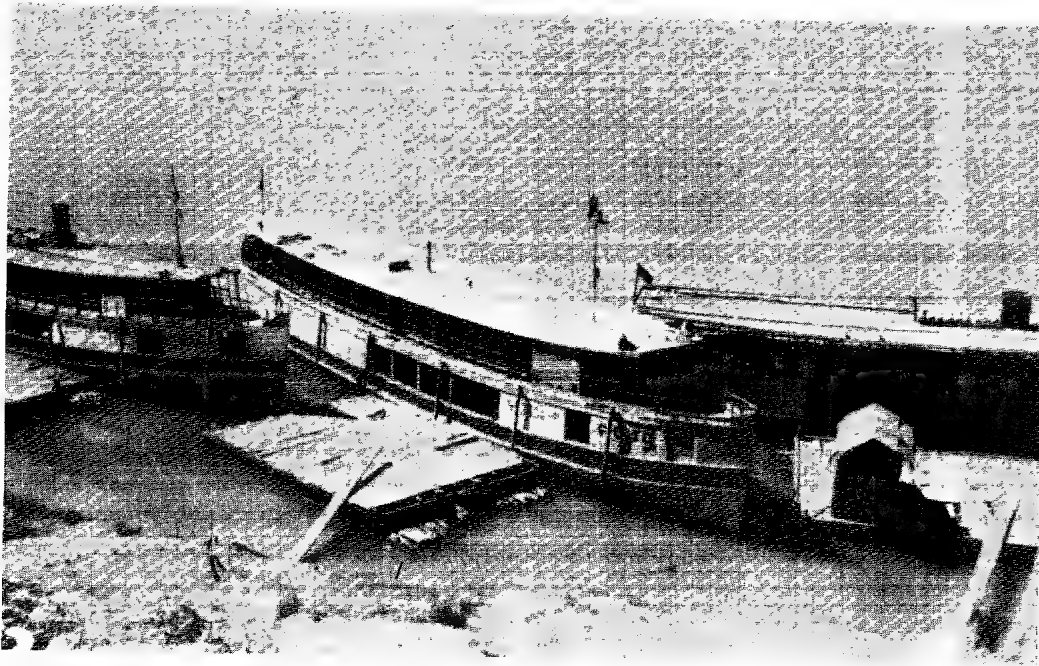


Figure 29. Passenger and cargo ferries at Kratie.

ture -- the Sihanouk Bridge in the northeastern part of Phnom Penh -- spans the Tonle Sap River; it has a maximum underbridge clearance of 30 feet.

Three large tributaries of the Mekong -- the Tônlé Kong, Se San, and Srepok -- tap Stung Treng and Ratanakiri provinces in the northeast; they converge before joining the Mekong at Stung Treng, 225 miles above Phnom Penh. Although obstructed by shallows, rapids, and sharp curves, they have served as part of the logistical network for the supply of ordnance and rice to Communist bases along the South Vietnam border. Native pirogues, powered by long-shafted outboard motors, have carried the cargo in the navigable sections of the rivers, while porters or trucks have moved it around the difficult sections. Porters also have had to carry the cargo the final few miles from the upper reaches of the rivers to the border bases.

Several large streams flow into the Tonle Sap, but heavy silting plagues navigation. Navigable waters also include a number of inlets that extend several miles into the interior lowlands along the Gulf of Thailand. They are the principal transportation arteries in that remote part of the country, even though all are of limited capacity and are plied principally by shallow-

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Figure 30. View of Se San in eastern Ratanakiri Province.

draft sampans and pirogues.

Silt accumulation is a problem on many waterways, and silting has been particularly heavy where the Tonle Sap (lake) drains into the river. Elsewhere, silting has caused many minor waterways to fall into disuse. Except for dredging in the port area around Phnom Penh and in sections of the Mekong between Kompong Cham and Kratie, little waterway maintenance has been undertaken. Vietnamese Communist troops, however, have cleared rocks and deepened the channel of the Tônlé Kong.

Navigation aids on all streams are inadequate; beacons, buoys, and other markers are not properly maintained. The bamboo poles and floats which commonly delineate navigable channels, are often carried away or obsoleted in their positioning by shifting bottoms. Few markers are lighted at night.

The Monivong and Sihanouk Bridges are the only structures to span major waterways, but they are not impediments to navigation; there are bridges with limited underbridge clearance on minor streams, which restrict water traffic during the high water of the rainy season. Movement on these streams is also

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hampered by the presence of other obstructions, including fishtraps, weirs, nets, and irrigation water wheels. Up-to-date navigation charts are unavailable for any of the country's rivers.

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The fleet plying Cambodia's waterways includes more than 3,500 motorized vessels and countless non-motorized craft. Pirogues carry light cargoes on the narrow and shallow upper stream courses, while tug-drawn barges carry heavy loads of rice and other agricultural commodities on the broader and deeper segments downstream. A multitude of junks, sampans, steamers, and launches choke the navigable waters of the Mekong and the Tonle Sap. The Cambodian merchant marine owns just two ships, both engaged primarily in commerce on the Mekong. Foreign ships carry most of the import-export traffic.

2. Seaports and Shipping

Phnom Penh, formerly Cambodia's major port, has now been eclipsed by the new port of Kompong Som, which currently leads in the number of ships handled and in the volume of exports and imports. Phnom Penh's harbor, which extends about 5 miles along the west bank of the Tonle Sap river, just above its confluence with the Mekong, is located slightly more than 200 miles from the sea. Prior to Cambodian independence in 1949, Saigon was the principal seaport for all of Indochina, and a well developed tug-and-barge service carried goods upstream from that point to Phnom Penh. Such services are now virtually nonexistent. South Vietnam closed the Mekong to international shipping into Cambodia for brief periods in 1967 and 1968, and ships were diverted to Kompong Som.

Water depths limit the port at Phnom Penh to use by small ocean-going vessels of not more than 2,000 gross tons. Twelve principal berthing facilities include piers, floating wharves, and a ramped section of the shore. These facilities are inadequate for the current volume of traffic, and vessels entering the port often must wait several days to berth. Port efficiency is further reduced by inadequate cargo-handling facilities. Only one wharf is equipped with mechanical handling devices for direct ship-to-rail transfer. At other

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wharves cargo must either be transferred by laborers or winched up steep stone or concrete revetments. Cargo frequently must be carried by laborers over planks between floating wharves and the shore. These operations become more difficult during the dry season when water is low and the vertical distances between the top of the banks and the floating wharves are greater. At least two tugs are available for docking and undocking vessels and for towing barges. Several government-operated lighters and a multitude of privately owned junks transfer cargo from vessels anchored in the river to the shore. Twenty-five pontoon wharves and miscellaneous landings provide alongside-berthing for small river craft -- steamers, junks, sampans, and barges -- in the southern part of the port.

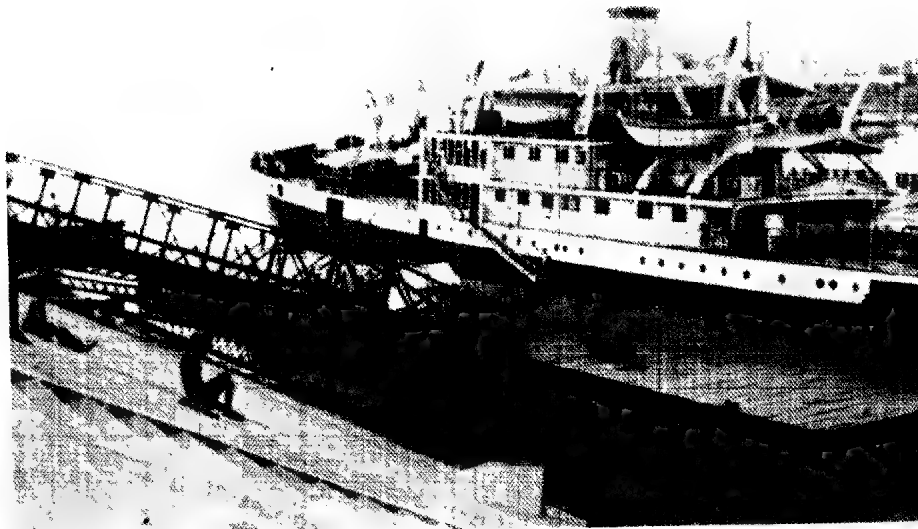


Figure 31. Phnom Penh port. Cargo must be winched or carried from floating wharf up steep revetment in foreground.

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Figure 32. Southern part of Phnom Penh port. Lighters carry cargo between ships and shore.

Forty warehouses supply more than 260,000 square feet of covered storage in the port area and open storage space is available between the riverbank and the roads paralleling the waterfront. A number of petroleum storage tanks have a combined capacity of more than 2,000,000 cubic feet.

Rail and highway clearance from the port area is only adequate at best. A railroad siding links one pier at the northern end of the port area with the main lines to Poipet and Kompong Som. A roadway along the waterfront provides access to all major facilities and clearance to the city is provided by surfaced roads, generally in good repair.

The principal base of the Cambodian Navy is located on the west bank of the Mekong, 1-1/2 miles north of its confluence with the Tonle Sap river. It includes one pier, repair facilities, barracks, and administration buildings.

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With continued expansion of its facilities* and recent completion of the Phnom Penh-Kompong Som rail line, Kompong Som presumably will become increasingly important in handling both import and export trade. Kompong Som has been a point of entry for supplies, including arms and ammunition, destined for Communist forces in South Vietnam. They have been trucked to warehouses in Phnom Penh or Kompong Speu, then transshipped by road or waterway to Communist bases in the border areas. The port occupies a sheltered shore on the east side of the Baie de Kompong Som, midway between Cambodia's borders with Thailand and South Vietnam. The bay provides unlimited anchorage for ocean-going ships. Main berthing facilities include an "L" shaped pier with a frontage of 950 feet. This pier can accomodate four large ocean-going ships (two on each side) of up to 15,000 tons each. A recently constructed 1,200-foot pier in the inner harbor can accomodate two vessels of up to 12,000 tons each. It was designed primarily for tankers supplying the oil refinery now in operation just north of the port area. A lighterage quay for small vessels of less than 8 feet draft is located behind the main deep-water pier. Small craft, in addition, can dock at the breakwater. Like Phnom Penh, cargo handling facilities are limited. There is no mechanical equipment on the piers, and ship's gear must be used for loading and unloading.

Two large warehouses provide about 140,000 square feet of covered storage; innumerable small sheds provide additional covered space and several acres are available for open stacking. Clearance from Kompong Som to the rest of the country is provided by the Khmer-American Friendship Highway and the rail line to Phnom Penh. An area for a free trade zone is being developed on a 600-acre site north of the port area to attract foreign investment and industry. As yet, the zone has attracted little of either.

* Plans call for the completion of 10 berths by the end of 1972 and eventual expansion to facilities for 20 berths.

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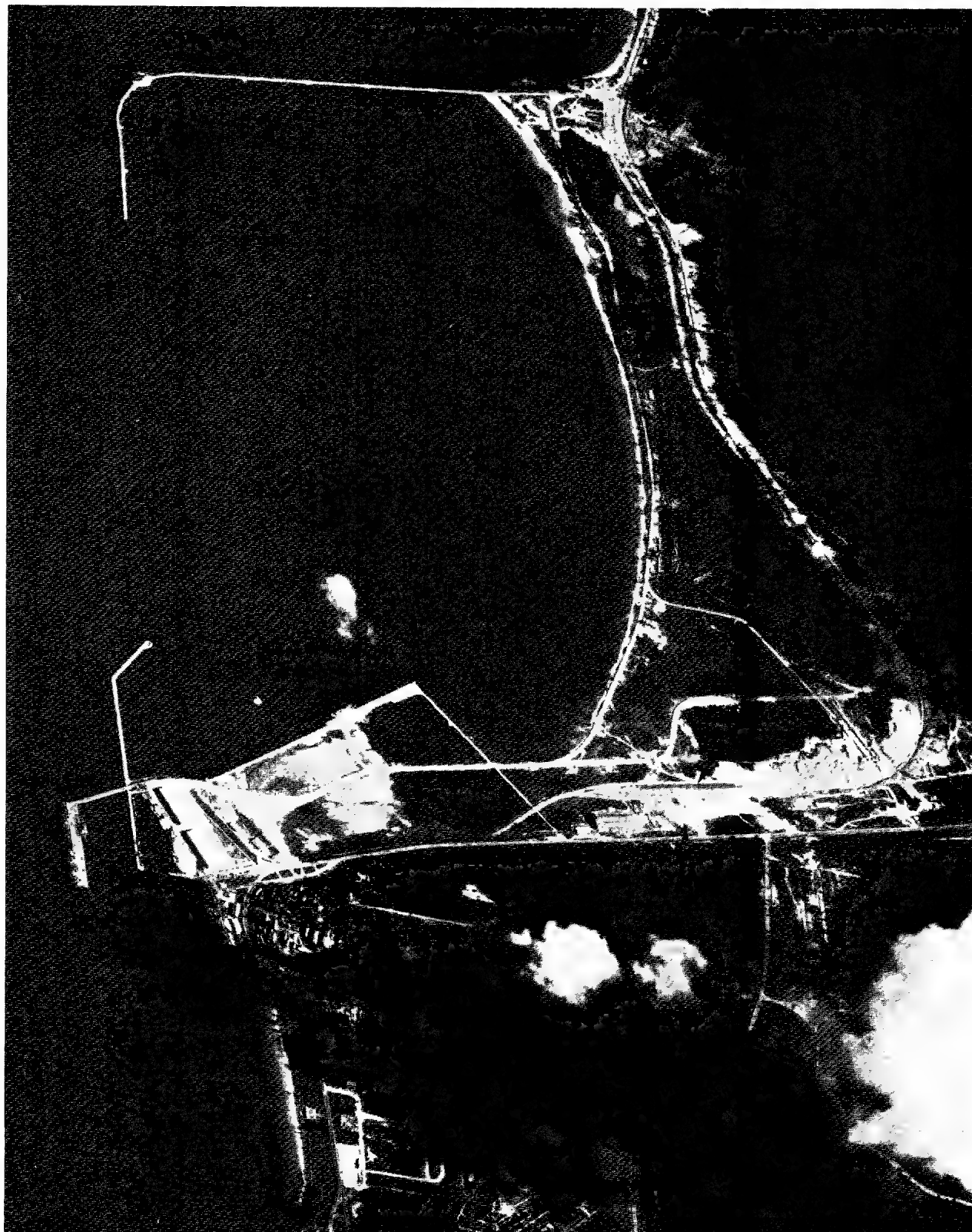


Figure 33. Aerial photograph (December 1968) of port of Kompong Som.

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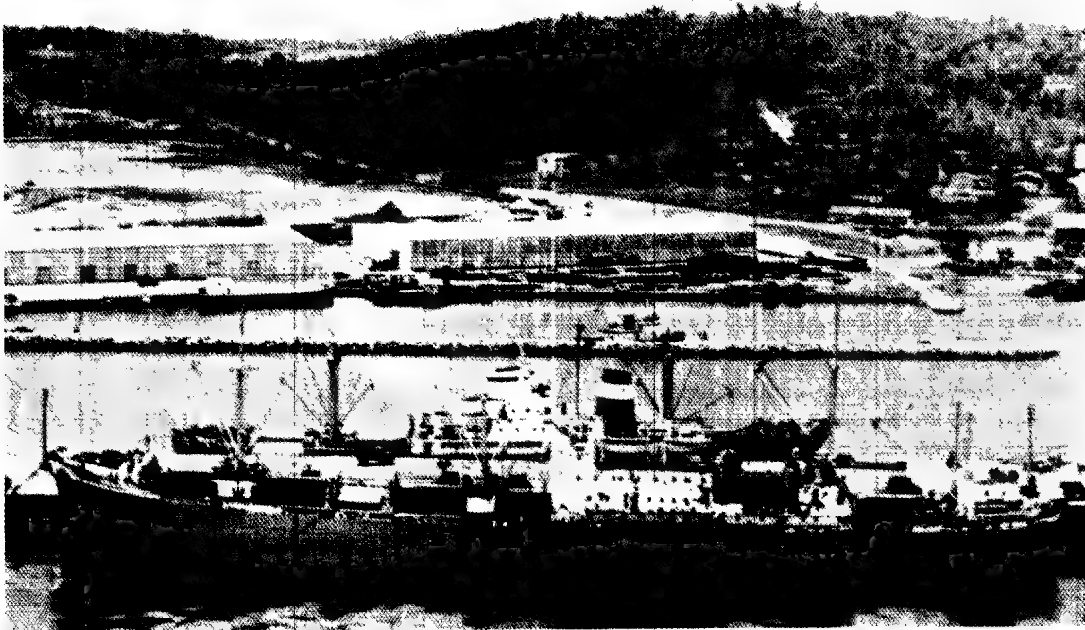


Figure 34. Kompong Som. Ship docked at main "L" shaped pier; quay for small vessels across middleground with warehouses behind it.

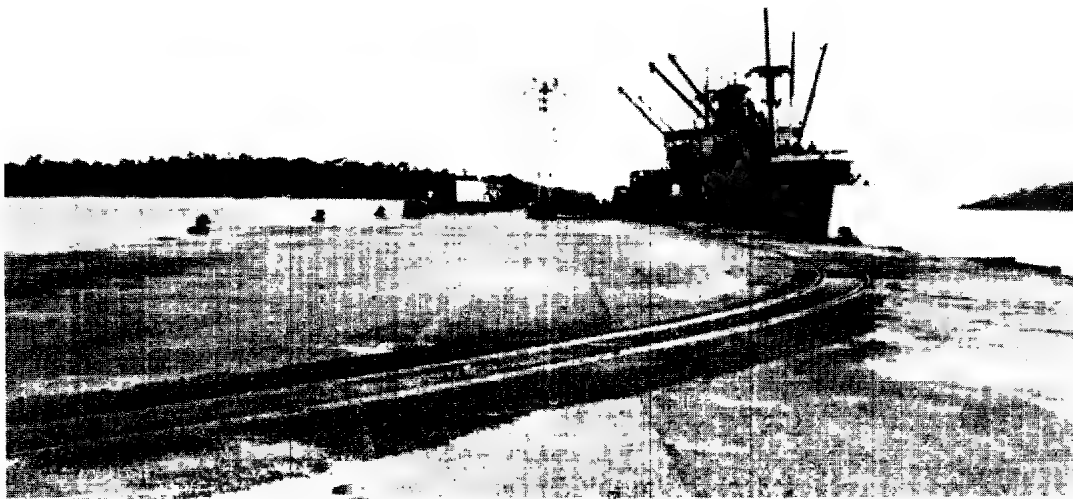


Figure 35. Main pier at Kompong Som. No cranes on pier; cargo must be loaded/unloaded by ship's gear.

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Major Mekong ports include Kompong Cham, a shipping center for rubber and other agricultural commodities; and Kratie, a transshipment point for cargo and passengers en-route to Laos or northeastern Cambodia (including to Communist base camps along the northern segment of the Cambodian-South Vietnam border). Kompong Chhnang -- the upstream limit of navigation on the Tonle Sap during the low-water season, and Kompong Phtoul -- a transfer point on the Tonle Sap for tourists visiting the ruins at Angkor, are the only other notable ports in interior Cambodia. Innumerable smaller ports with primitive docking and cargo handling facilities line the inland waterways.

Among the coastal ports is Kampot, situated several miles up the Prek Toek Chhu. Ocean-going vessels anchor at the mouth of the river, and cargoes are transshipped from or to junks, barges, and other small craft. Road and rail clearance to the rest of the country is good. Some 40 miles west of Kampot is Ream. Although its importance as a major seaport has been eclipsed by the development of Kompong Som, 10 miles to the northwest, it still serves as the major coastal base for the Cambodian Navy. Facilities are meager, however, and limited to logistic support and repair. Clearance from the port is by a 7-mile fair-weather road that links with the Khmer-American Friendship Highway. Innumerable small settlements along the Gulf of Thailand function as fishing and trade centers.

E. Air Transport

Air transport plays only a minor role in Cambodia's internal transportation. Air Cambodia (AC), a joint private-state corporation, schedules only one domestic service, two flights daily between Phnom Penh and Siem Reap -- primarily for tourists visiting the Angkor ruins. As of March 1970, Air Cambodia flights linked Phnom Penh with four points in the Far East: direct flights with Hong Kong three times weekly; Singapore and Denpasar (Bali), Indonesia, twice weekly; and with Canton once a week. In addition to the Air Cambodia flights, eight other international carriers link Phnom Penh with several Asian capitals and with points in the Middle East and Europe. Air France and its subsidiary Union Transports Aériens recently have inaugurated stopovers at Siem Reap on their flights between Paris and the Far East.

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Air Cambodia flies Caravelles and DC-6's. Except for a handful of light aircraft such as Cessnas and Beechcrafts -- most of which are owned by French-operated rubber plantations -- there are no private aircraft in the country. Air facilities consist of 44 airfields with runway lengths greater than 2,000 feet and one seaplane station (on the Mekong east of Phnom Penh). There are, in addition, a number of shorter landing strips suitable for use by STOL (short take-off and landing) craft as well as some abandoned strips that could be returned to service. Most of the airfields are concentrated in south-central Cambodia. Pochentong Airfield, 6 miles west of Phnom Penh, is the main airport of entry and the home base for the Cambodian Air Force. Its 9,800-foot concrete runway can accommodate C-135 aircraft. Siem Reap's concrete runway, extended in 1968 to 8,500 feet with Chinese aid, also can handle jet aircraft of the C-135 size. Kompong Cham, Battambang, and Stung Treng airfields have asphalt runways capable of supporting C-54 aircraft but have limited support facilities. All other fields have gravel, laterite, or grass surfaces. Most are capable of supporting C-47 aircraft during dry weather only; their surfaces may become mired with mud and unusable during much of the rainy season. Some can accommodate only light liaison aircraft. All such fields are further limited by lack of support facilities and navigational aids.

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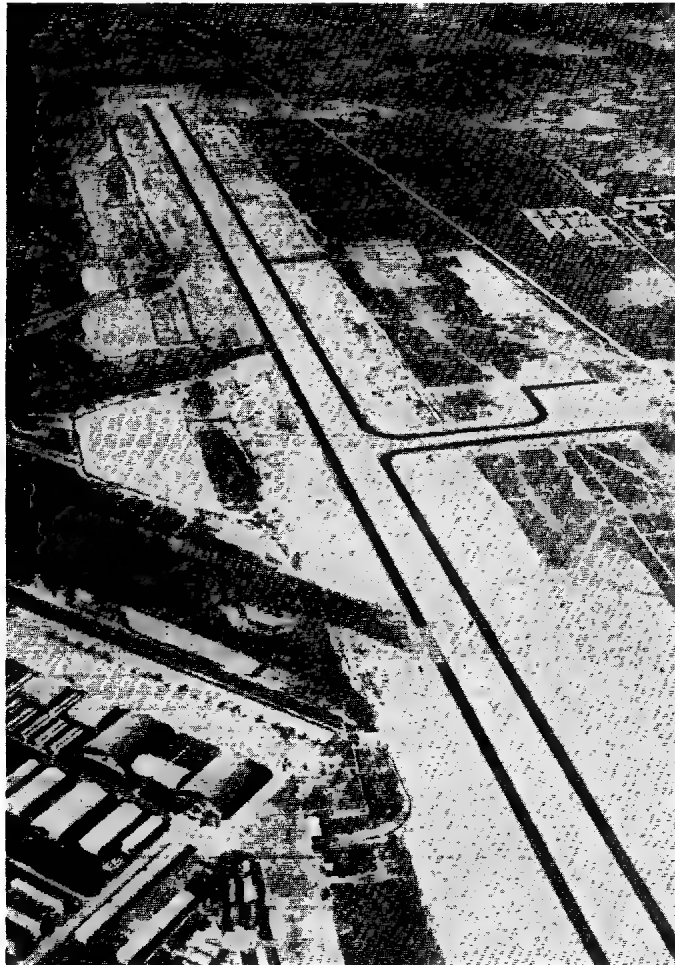


Figure 36. Pochentong Airfield, west of Phnom Penh; runway is 9,800 feet long.

F. Cross-Border Movement

Cambodia's boundaries with its neighbors traverse some 1,600 miles -- about 500 of them forming the boundary with Thailand, approximately 335 with Laos, and some 765 with South Vietnam. For the most part, borders cross either mountainous or poorly drained terrain, generally sparsely populated. Major cross-border routes are few. The Phnom Penh-Poipet rail line and the line leading from the Thai-Cambodian border to Bangkok do not connect. With diplomatic relations restored between the two countries, the short breach in the line may be filled and limited cross-border traffic initiated. Seven all-weather roads

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link Cambodia with its neighbors -- one with Thailand, one with Laos, and five with South Vietnam.

The road link with Thailand parallels the rail line through the lowlands west of the Tonle Sap. Cart tracks and foot trails crisscross the border in the generally heavily wooded western corridor and have served as arteries for illicit cross-border movement by smugglers, bandits and Khmer Serei guerrillas. A poorly maintained dry-weather road which crosses the steep Chaîne des Dangrek into Thailand is jeepable at best. The southern segment of the border edges the rugged and largely uninhabited Chaîne des Cardamones; the border zone here is devoid even of jeepable tracks.

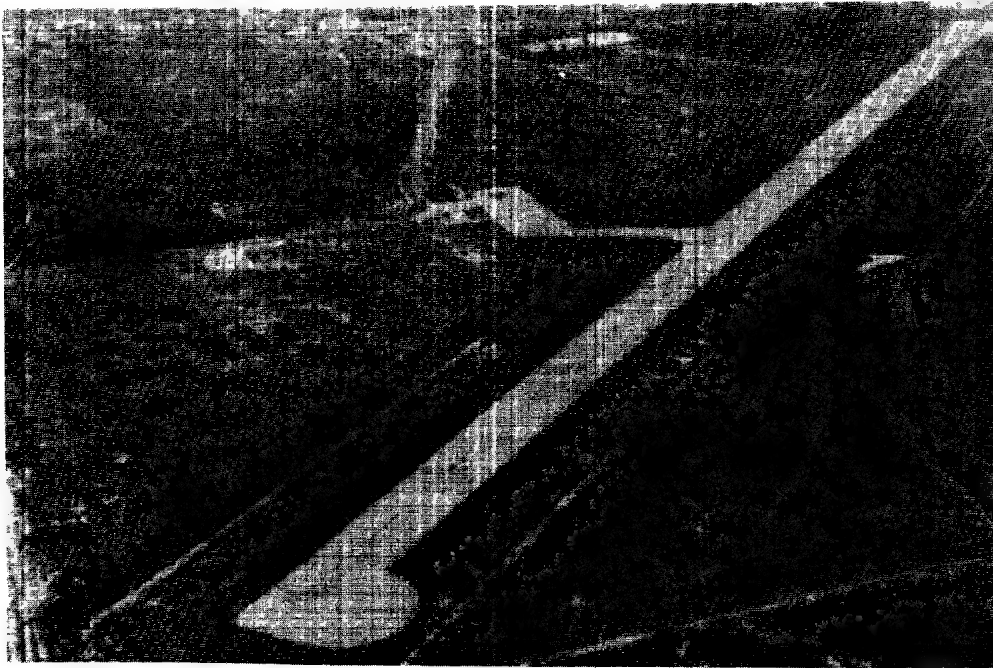


Figure 37. Siem Reap airfield which handles flights of Air France and its subsidiary, Union Transport Aériens.

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Figure 38. Airfields at Boung Long and Virachei.

Although the Chutes de Khone precludes through movement by river craft along the Mekong between Cambodia and Laos, the Tônlé Kong to the east supports some traffic by native pirogues; ordnance has moved from Cambodia to Communist forces in Laos by such craft. Route 13, an all-weather road which parallels the Mekong along its east bank, connects the two countries and has supported considerable illegal traffic of Chinese Communist goods from Cambodia into Laos. Elsewhere, movement between the two countries -- both legal and illegal -- is along cart tracks or trails. North Vietnamese troops have crossed the generally rugged and sparsely peopled eastern segment of the border, thence across Cambodia's northeastern salient into South Vietnam.

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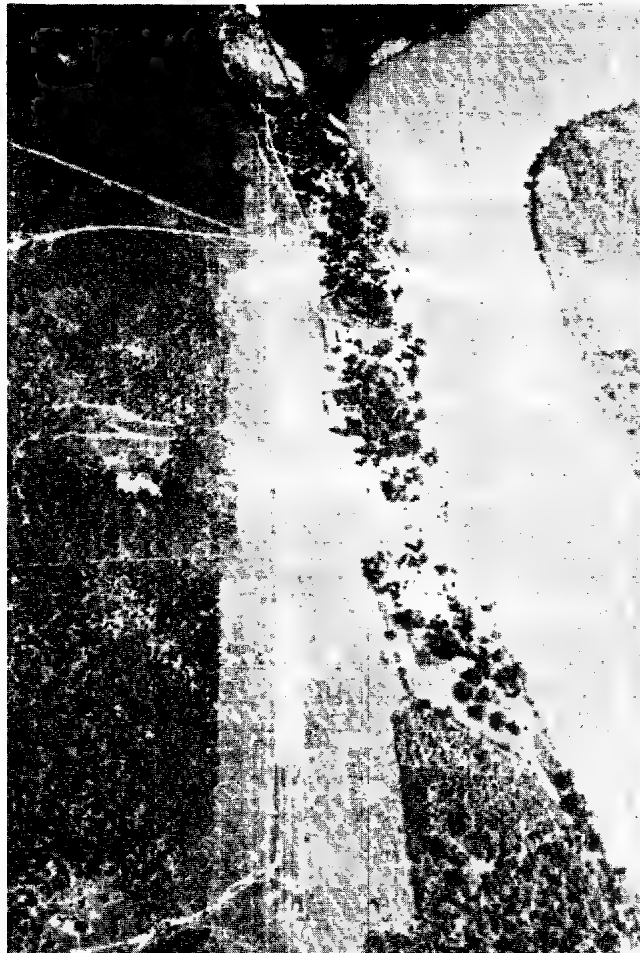


Figure 39. Airfields at Buong Long and Virachei.

Communication links with South Vietnam are better developed than those with either Thailand or Laos. In addition to the five all-weather road links, innumerable jeep roads, cart tracks, foot trails, and distributaries of the Mekong provide cross-border connections. Vietnamese Communist forces have constructed and upgraded roads and trails in all parts of the border zone to supplement the waterways in support of their forces operating in South Vietnam. A well developed network of foot trails fed by Cambodia's northeastern waterways and roads has been used by Communist forces operating in or transiting the mountainous and lightly peopled northern border region. Waterways, roads, and trails have

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supported cross-border traffic by these Communists in the low-lying, relatively densely settled southern border zone.



Figure 40. Rice smugglers along southern segment of Cambodian-South Vietnam border.



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READING LIST

1. CIA. NIS 43A, Cambodia, "General Survey," Jul 1967. S.
2. CIA. NIS 43A, Cambodia, Section 32, "Highways," Feb 1963. S.
3. CIA. NIS 43A, Cambodia, Section 33, "Inland Waterways," Jan 1962. S.
4. CIA. NIS 43A, Cambodia, Section 35, "Ports and Naval Facilities," Jun 1959. S.

5.

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10. US Military Assistance Command Vietnam. Special Study: Supply Lines through Laos and Cambodia into South Vietnam, Feb 1969. C.

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- CAMBODIA

CHAPTER V - TELECOMMUNICATIONS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
A. General	1
B. Telephone and Telegraph	1
Domestic	1
International	2
C. Broadcasting	3
D. Special Systems	5
E. 	6

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Photographs
(Abbreviated Titles)

Figure No.

1	Building 296 - Stung Mean - Chey Radio Station	4
2	Stung Mean - Chey Radio Station towers	4

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- CAMBODIA

CHAPTER V - TELECOMMUNICATIONS
(March 1970)

A. General

Cambodia's telecommunications system is among the poorest in Southeast Asia. Transmission media in the common carrier (public) system consist essentially of low-capacity open wirelines and high-frequency (HF) radio links installed by the French before World War II. Much of the public communications system was damaged during the war and subsequent disturbances, and most of the facilities still in use are now antiquated and poorly maintained. Aside from the lack of modern transmission, switching, and terminal equipment, Cambodia suffers from an acute shortage of trained communications engineers, technicians, and operating personnel.

The central government controls all legal telecommunications activity, with responsibility for common carrier communications services vested in the Direction de Postes et Telecommunications (DPT). In addition to the common carrier system, independent radio networks serve the special needs of the armed forces, the national police and, to a very limited extent, the aeronautical and maritime authorities. All systems radiate outward from Phnom Penh, the communications hub of the country. All major population centers are linked to the capital by either wireline or radio link, but many smaller towns and villages are without any type of telecommunications facility.

B. Telephone and Telegraph

Domestic

Within the common carrier system, virtually all domestic telephone and telegraph traffic is transmitted by open wirelines, supplemented by HF radio for long-distance (intercity) backup. The wireline system totals about 6,000 route miles and connects most of the major cities with Phnom Penh. Normally, the wirelines parallel the highway system but there is no uniform pattern of pole alignment. In some areas, lines are strung along the shoul-

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ders of the roads; in others, they parallel the road but have the poles set back about 30 feet from the shoulder. The same wireline ordinarily is used for both telephone and telegraph circuits.

Because the wireline system is characterized by frequent service outages, low circuit capacity, and incomplete geographic coverage, substantial use is made of the public HF radio communications network for transmission of domestic telephone and telegraph traffic. Limited expansion of this radio network has occurred in recent years. Since May 1968 a new radio-telephone link has been operating between Phnom Penh and the city of Stung Treng in the northeast and a new radiotelegraph link became operative in June 1969 between the capital and Khemarak Phouminville near the southern end of the Cambodia-Thailand border. Although not new, one of Cambodia's most important radio communications links is a three-channel radio relay route extending from Phnom Penh through Bokor to the port of Kompong Som.

Telephone service is extremely limited. There are probably not more than 5-6 thousand telephones for a population of more than 6.7 million, or less than one telephone for every 1,000 people. Most of those having access to phones are government officials; at least half of all telephones in the country are located in Phnom Penh. The percentage of uncompleted telephone calls is very high and, even when connections are successfully made, audibility of the signal is poor. Similarly, telegrams processed through the Cambodian telegraph service frequently arrive with a large number of words missing or garbled.

Telephone exchange equipment is relatively limited and unsophisticated by Western standards, but line capacity appears to be adequate to handle the small number of telephones currently in use. A 4,000-line automatic exchange (expandable to 6,000 lines) is installed in Phnom Penh and smaller-capacity automatic exchanges are in operation at Kompong Som, Siem Reap, Kompong Cham, and Battambang. All other telephone exchanges are manually operated.

International

Virtually all international telephone and telegraph traffic must go by HF point-to-point radio, and all messages must be routed through Phnom Penh. The only exception is an open wireline route which crosses from Poipet, Cambodia into Thailand and provides telegraph service between Phnom Penh and Bangkok. Phnom Penh has direct

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HF links with only the eight following cities:

<u>City</u>	<u>Service</u>
Bangkok, Thailand	telegraph
Vientiane, Laos	telegraph
Saigon, South Vietnam	telegraph, telephone
Manila, Philippines	telegraph, telephone
Hong Kong	telegraph, telephone
Singapore	telegraph, telephone
Tokyo, Japan	telegraph, telephone, telephoto
Paris, France	teleprinter, telephone, telephoto

Furthermore, daily hours of international service are short. For example, international telegraph service at Phnom Penh is available from 1200 hours to 2200 hours and telephone service is available only between 12---1330 hours daily. There are no restrictions on who may use the service but reservations must be made one day in advance to place an overseas telephone call.

C. Broadcasting

For general domestic broadcasting, Cambodia has one radio station (known as Chaine Nationale) located in the Phnom Penh area and a rebroadcast station located in Battambang. "Chaine Nationale" uses two Philips transmitters (a 15-kw shortwave set and a 20-kw medium wave set) have been used for international broadcasting.

The Philips transmitters are housed in a building located approximately ten miles west of the center of Phnom Penh about 200 yards from the highway. This facility is known as the Stung Mean Chey Radio Broadcast Station and contains additional radio equipment consisting of a one-kw medium wave transmitter made by Collins, a one-kw medium-wave transmitter made by Temco, and two 10-kw transmitters (frequency band unknown) made by Brown Boveri. The current operational status of these additional transmitters is unknown as is the precise location of the Chinese transmitters.

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Figure 1. Building 296 - Stung Mean Chey Radio Station.



Figure 2. Stung Mean Chey Radio Station towers.

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An experimental military radio broadcasting station, operated by the National Cambodian Armed Forces (FANK) and located in Tioulongville, started broadcasting in March 1969. Calling itself "The Voice of the Army", is powered by a one-kw shortwave transmitter.

Cambodia has about 100,000 radio receivers, most being concentrated in the areas surrounding Phnom Penh. Increasing imports of inexpensive transistor radios (most notably Japanese) are contributing, however, to a more widely distributed listening audience.

There is one operating television station, located at Phnom Penh. The current operational status of a television relay station at Bokor, destroyed by fire in 1964, is not known. The number of television sets in Cambodia probably does not exceed 25,000.

D. Special Systems

The principal special-purpose telecommunications systems are the radio networks of FANK, the Provincial Guard* (the country's primary paramilitary organization), and the National Police.

Until recently, the FANK relied primarily on US radio communications equipment. This equipment consists of a variety of manpack and vehicle-mounted HF transceivers, used for both fixed and mobile communications and widely deployed throughout the various military regions. Since 1968, however, there have been indications that FANK has been phasing more modern single sideband HF radio equipment of French manufacture into its communications networks. It is likely that, as the French radio equipment becomes available to higher FANK echelons, the older US radio sets will be reissued to lower echelon army units and/or held in reserve for backup communications.

Radio communications facilities of the Provincial Guard (PG) apparently are dispersed rather widely in the hinterland, but little is known about them. PG equipment is believed to consist primarily of low-powered, short-range HF transceivers, characterized by poor operational reliability. Radio communications facilities of the National Police are evidently concentrated in a small number of major cities, such as Phnom Penh, Battambang, and Kampot. At last report,

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the national police stations in these three cities were equipped with obsolete, low-powered HF radio sets of French manufacture. All transmissions on these PG and police facilities are by voice owing to the lack of trained telegraph operators. The radio equipment is in poor condition and police officials frequently must resort to use of the public communications system to get their messages through.

The government provides minimal air/ground radio communications facilities to service the country's three principal airports and Phnom Penh, Battambang and Siem Reap. Maritime communications facilities, for all practical purposes are nonexistent at the present time. The port of Kompong Som has a shore/ship radio station but its operations are extremely erratic and arriving ships place little dependence on it. Ships bound for Kompong Som frequently are able to communicate with this port only by relaying their messages through Singapore and Phnom Penh.



* Provincial Guard dissolved March 1970; facilities and personnel incorporated into FANK.

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- CAMBODIA

PART III

INTERNAL SECURITY

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 - **CAMBODIA**

CHAPTER I - ARMED FORCES

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
A. Introduction	1
B. Military Forces	
Army	5
Navy	14
Air Force	16
C. Paramilitary Forces	18

Photographs
(Abbreviated Titles)

Figure No.

1	Cambodian Army Base	6
2	Former FANK Headquarters at Bokheo	7
3	Khmer Military Academy	8
4	Tire retreading shops	9
5	Aerial view of Snoul	10
6	Weapons captured during Cambodian operations	11
7	Weapons captured during Cambodian operations	11
8	Weapons captured during Cambodian operations	12
9	Weapons captured during Cambodian operations	13
10	Troops parading in Phnom Penh	13
11	Pochentong Airfield	17
12	Air Force Base at Pochentong Airfield	17
13	Parade of women members of paramilitary movement	19
14	Provincial guard post	20
15	Village self-defense unit	21

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CHAPTER I - ARMED FORCES
(September 1970)

A. Introduction

Cambodia always has had serious military problems caused by hostile neighbors, poorly demarcated national boundaries, and a lack of natural physical barriers. Furthermore, Cambodia has been hampered by lack of qualified leadership, wide dispersal of troop units and their limited mobility, weak logistical and technical support, and the small size of its armed forces relative to those of its neighbors. The Cambodian armed forces have been trained to operate as guerillas, assisted by paramilitary forces, with a primary mission of harassing an invading force rather than conducting major military operations. The current situation has forced the Army into a more conventional posture, which is causing many problems.

Prior to the overthrow of Prince Sihanouk, the National Cambodian Armed Forces* was one of the smallest national forces in Southeast Asia. The armed forces have grown from a pre-March 1970 strength of some 38,000 men to an estimated 154,000 as of September 1970. Increases up to 210,000 are planned for 1971. The FANK consists of the Cambodian Army (Armée Nationale Khmère - ANK); the Navy (Marine Nationale Khmère - MNK); and the Air Force (Aviation Nationale Khmère - AVNK). The Army is by far the dominant force. At the time of the coup, the armed forces were supplemented by a variety of armed paramilitary units with a total strength of 56,000 men. These included 6,000 Police; 30,000 Light Surface Defense Detachment (DLDS -- formerly Chivapol and also known as Home Guards); 15,000 Provincial Guards (the Army's main reserve force); and the 5,000-member paramilitary section of the former Royal Khmer Socialist Youth (JSRK). Since the ouster of Sihanouk, the country has undergone an urgent mobilization, and the Provincial Guards and paramilitary sections of the JSRK have been dissolved and incorporated into FANK.

* Forces Armées Nationales Khmères (FANK), formerly Forces Armées Royales Khmères (FARK).

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Under Sihanouk, FANK had four important missions; maintenance of internal security in conjunction with National Cambodian Police; defense of the country against external aggression; development of the primitive regions through civic action and public works projects; and direction of the national sports program. Before the appearance of insurgency in early 1967, the military was free to concentrate on civic action programs designed to promote security in remote border areas, and accomplish public works to help bolster the national economy. In support of these missions, the Army was deployed throughout the five* military regions (MR).

Under Sihanouk the defense organization was centered on the Chief of State who made all major decisions. Directly under him came the Commander-in-Chief of FANK who controlled general staff and operational aspects of the armed forces, and exercised general policy influence over all other defense functions. The Minister of National Defense controlled the administration and, theoretically, logistical support for the armed forces, but had no operational responsibilities. The Inspector General was independently responsible to the Commander-in-Chief and controlled the General Staff, the troops and the service schools. The Chief of the General Staff exercised direct command over the Chief of Staff of each of the three services. He also was directly responsible for the inspection of the organization, training, administration, and logistics of FANK units.

Since the ouster of Sihanouk, Lon Nol has commanded the entire Cambodian military situation in his roles as Prime Minister, Minister of National Defense, and Commander-in-Chief of FANK. The new Chief of State is essentially a figurehead; real power resides in the office of the Prime Minister. Unless a strong military man, like Lon Nol, is elected Chief of State, it can be expected that the role of Chief of State will remain diminished in military affairs.

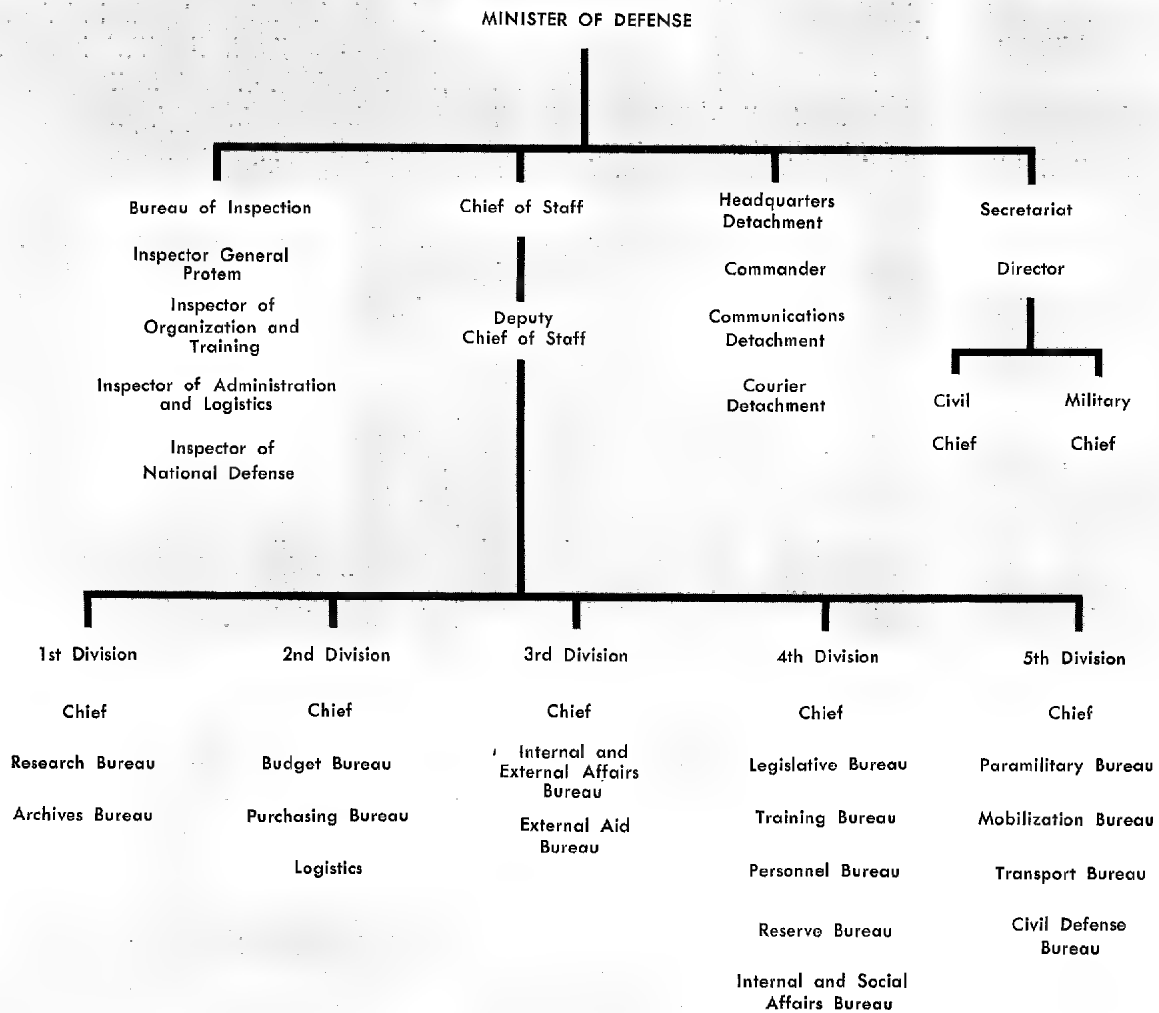
FANK Headquarters serves as headquarters for the three component services. In conjunction with the Minister of National Defense, the Headquarters draws up the plan that

* From 1968 to May 1970 there were six MR's. By August 1970 MR's 5 and 6 had been dissolved due to Communist pressure there.

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Figure 1

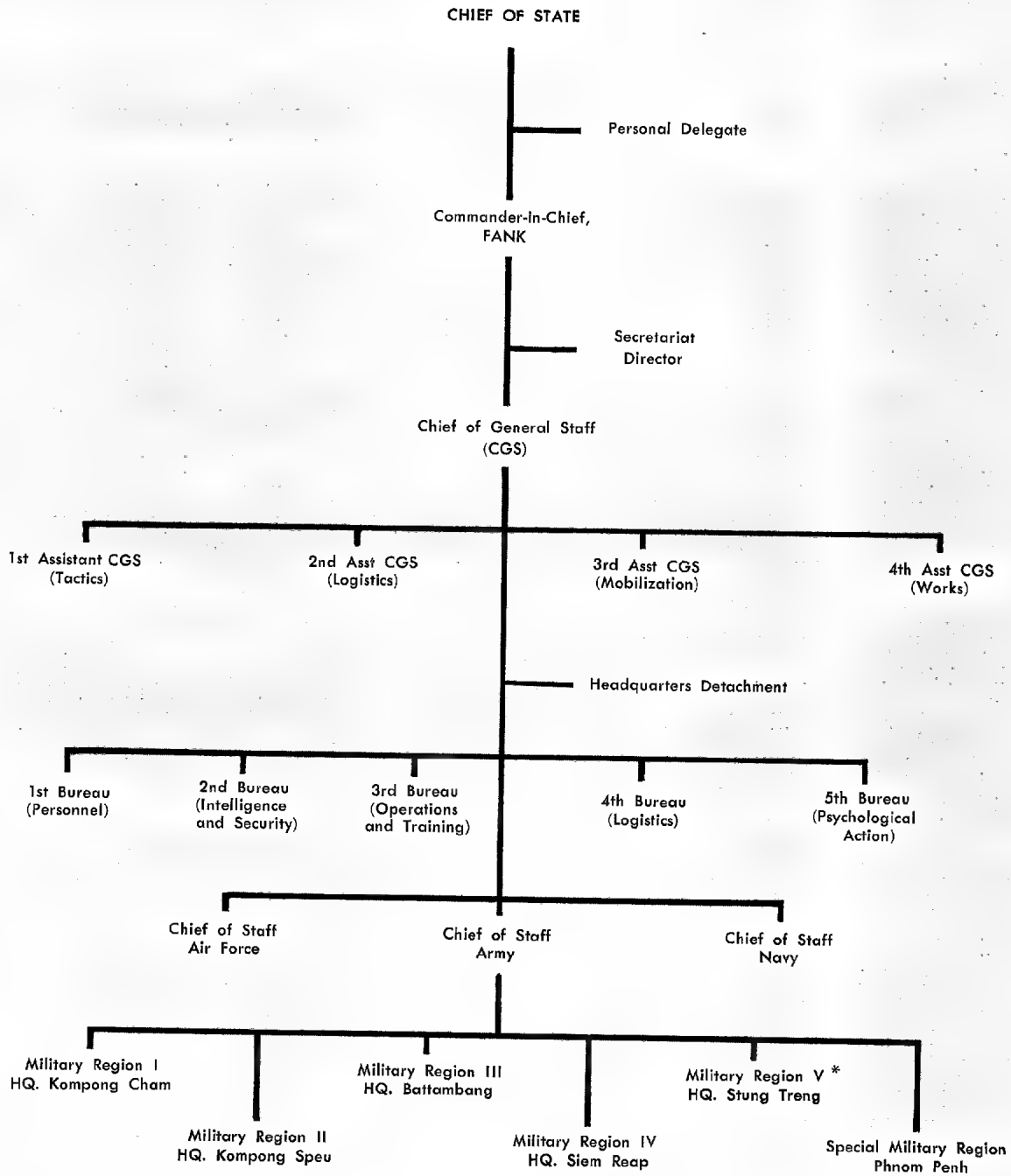
MINISTRY OF NATIONAL DEFENSE



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Figure 2

NATIONAL DEFENSE ORGANIZATION (FANK)



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serve as a basis for the national defense budget. The Chief of the General Staff attends all meetings of the Council of Ministers or National Assembly in which military funds are to be discussed. A High Council of National Defense serves as a liaison office between the General Staff and the Minister of National Defense to ensure cooperation between civilian and military authorities. In addition to his FANK responsibilities, the Minister of National Defense seeks to harmonize relations among all ministries of the government. The National Defense Ministry also is responsible for administering military justice.

Morale of the armed forces had been excellent before the Cambodian forces began suffering repeated defeats at the hands of the Vietnamese Communists. Pay and living conditions for members of the regular armed forces had been considered good by Cambodian standards, and the military was highly regarded. Serious morale problems could begin when the Cambodians face the prospect of a long war against the better trained and equipped North Vietnamese Communists.

Since 1954 a conscription law has provided for a compulsory 18 months of military service by all qualified males between the ages of 21 and 35. It has been rarely used, however, because voluntary enlistments usually filled quotas. Formerly, recruiting was centered in the military regions, with each region responsible for filling its own quotas.

In March 1970 citizens of all ages rushed to enlist, almost doubling the size of the armed forces within a month. Unfortunately, there was no apparent mobilization plan and military logistics were inadequate to the task of making maximum use of the new recruits. The effectiveness of the mobilization also was hampered by inadequate FANK training which, even prior to the present mobilization, was perfunctory and seldom went beyond rudimentary basic training. In the first months of the mobilization some recruits received only one day's military instruction before being committed to combat. A shortage of well-trained officers, who composed less than 2% of FANK's premobilization strength, also hampered a rapid mobilization, as well as the absence of an organized reserve. There were, however, more than 400 officers and non-commissioned officers who were military school graduates with at least one year of service. These, plus more than 4,000 trained veterans, were recalled to active duty when the war developed.

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By July 1970 Cambodia had not joined any international security organization, still hoping to be able to return to a neutral or nonaligned position. Under Sihanouk, Cambodia had rejected her status as "Protocol State" in the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO). While SEATO members respected Cambodia's renunciation of SEATO protection, the Protocol never was amended and Cambodia retains the option of appealing to SEATO. Any SEATO response to an appeal would require the affirmative vote of five members and could be blocked by any member's negative vote. None of the six SEATO contingency plans dealt exclusively with a Communist attack or threat against Cambodia. In the meantime, the Cambodian Government has appealed to all countries for assistance. South Vietnamese troops are operating in Cambodia with the agreement of the Government of Cambodia. Thailand and South Vietnam have begun training Cambodian troops, and the U.S., South Vietnam and Thailand are conducting air operations over Cambodia. The United States is sending the Cambodian Government captured Chinese Communist and Soviet arms, and providing \$8.9 million in military aid for the fiscal year ending June 1970. In August 1970 the United States and Cambodia signed a pact under which the U.S. will provide \$40 million in military assistance during fiscal 1971.

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B. Military Forces

The National Cambodian Army (ANK) is a lightly equipped, infantry-dominated force. Its main functions have been maintenance of internal security and defense against external attack. Technically the Army is under direct control of the Army Chief of Staff, who directs all operational activities and is responsible directly to the Chief of the General Staff of the Armed Forces. In fact, Lon Nol is running the military and has taken a hand in planning operations. Because of the preponderance of the army element in the armed forces, the Armed Forces General Staff and the Army General Staff are essentially the same. The Army high command is organized into five staff bureaus: Personnel, Intelligence/Security, Logistics, Operations and Training, and Information and Morale.

Before fighting began in March 1970, the Army was organized into 55 battalions and 9 half brigades (HB), all widely dispersed throughout the six military regions. The battalion was the largest tactical unit; the HB's were commands established for administration rather than operational control of subordinate elements. The Army was organized into one artillery HB of 3 groups; one armored HB of 1 armored regiment and 1 armored reconnaissance regiment; one parachute HB of two 500-men battalions; the Phnom Penh HB of 3 battalions; one signal HB of 3 battalions; one transportation HB; one engineer HB of 6 battalions; one antiaircraft HB of 2 groups; one Royal Guard HB of 2 battalions (combined with other elements since the change of government). The basic tactical unit was the infantry battalion of which there were three types: standard infantry, special, and commando. Normally, a standard infantry battalion consisted of a headquarters company and four rifle companies; its authorized strength was 701 but actually was 300 to 400 below authorized strength. A special battalion had an authorized strength of 380-400 and consisted of three rifle companies, one reconnaissance platoon, one mortar platoon, and one recoilless rifle platoon. The commando battalions consisted of about 265 men and functioned as lightly equipped guerrilla-type units.

The Army training program stressed both conventional and small-unit guerrilla warfare tactics. Unit training generally was poor, with much training time being spent on civic action projects, menial chores and sports. Combined service training was almost nonexistent. Recruits were trained at the Infantry Training Centers at Pursat and Romeas, which

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also had a 6-month infantry noncom course. Officer candidates and Air Force pilot trainees attended the Khmer Military Academy in Phnom Penh; all noncoms then attended the Officers School of Application at Kompong Chhnang for a year. The Cambodian Military Academy also offered command courses for battalion and company commanders and regular and advanced staff courses. A Jungle Warfare School provided training in guerrilla warfare, and branch and specialist schools gave specialized instruction. The French Military Mission supported the Army's training program by assigning advisors to all schools except the Infantry Training Centers and the Jungle Warfare School. Except for the parachute battalions, the French were not permitted to have advisors in field units. Cambodian officers attended French military schools and, until 1963, some Cambodians were trained in the United States.



Figure 1. Cambodian Army base on outskirts of Pursat. 1961.

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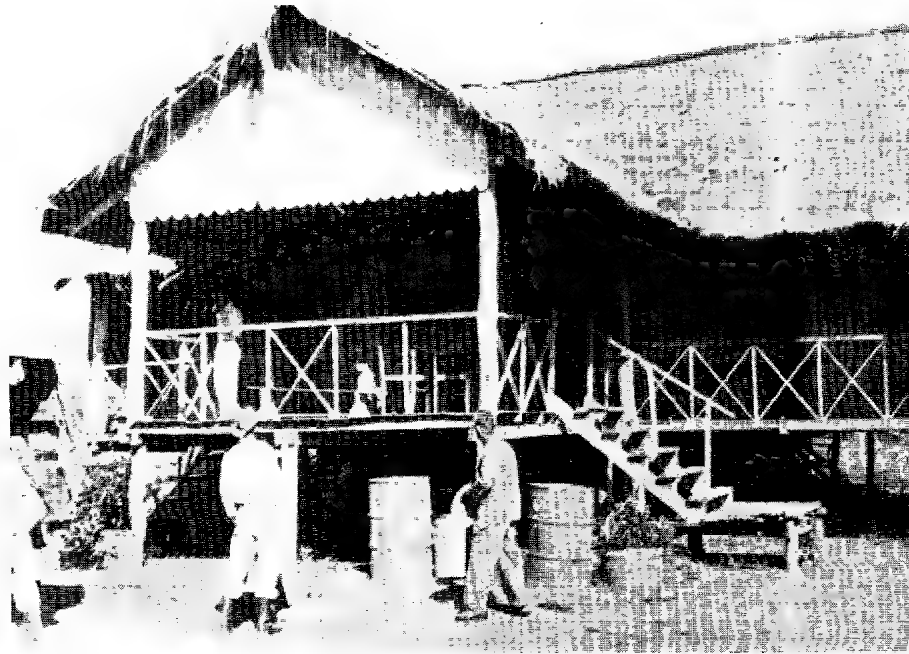


Figure 2. Former FANK Headquarters at Bokheo, Ratanakiri Province 1962.

Cambodia's dependence on shifting and erratic foreign aid programs has left the country with a wide variety of weapons and equipment which has magnified the problems of ammunition storage and distribution. When the Communist countries suddenly stopped supplying equipment, the military found itself in a precarious situation. The Army was so short of military vehicles that troops were seen riding into battle on civilian vehicles, including bicycles, Pepsi Cola trucks and ancient buses. The Army was equipped primarily with Chinese Communist small arms. The AK-47 was the basic infantry weapon; the 60-mm and 82-mm (Chicom) mortars were standard equipment. The Chicom 76-mm gun and the Chicom-Soviet 122-mm howitzer were typical artillery weapons. Antiaircraft units were equipped with Soviet 37-mm, 85-mm and 100-mm weapons. Cambodian armor consisted of U.S. M-8 armored cars with a 50 caliber machinegun and French AMX-13's mounting a 75-mm gun. Originally stocks were adequate to supply a relatively large force with small arms, but ammunition of almost

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all types was inadequate for sustained hostilities at Cambodia's projected future strength levels. In addition, the heavy weapons support was in short supply. Supply problems have intensified with the rapid increase in the infantry and paramilitary forces.

The Army has always relied heavily on foreign logistical support. The U.S.-constructed logistic center at Peam Lovek, 30 miles northwest of Phnom Penh, served as the maintenance center for all ordnance and quartermaster materiel. It provided up to fifth-echelon repair to weapons, vehicles and other equipment. Additional maintenance was performed abroad; vehicles were shipped to Japan for major overhauls. Individual unit commanders were responsible for equipment maintenance which generally was below standards required to maintain combat efficiency.

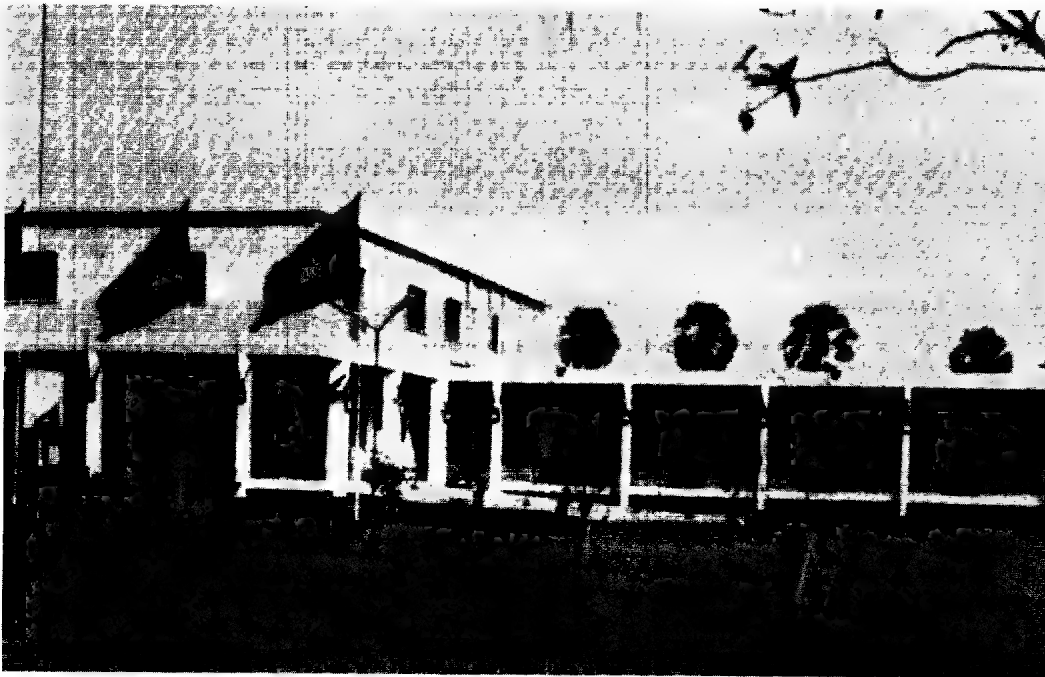


Figure 3. Khmer Military Academy, Phnom Penh. 1962

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Figure 4. Tire retreading shop at FANK logistics center at Peam Lovek. August 1966.

The Army has shown that it is capable of multi-battalion size tactical operations--but has difficulty organizing an effective defense against external attack. When fighting broke out in March 1970, the Army was quickly overwhelmed and forced to go on the defensive. Eventually the Government's troops were overrun in the rugged north-eastern provinces of Ratanakiri, Stung Treng, Mondulakiri, and Kratie. They then consolidated to defend the more populated regions. The Vietnamese Communists made impressive territorial gains, demonstrating an ability to strike seemingly at will in almost every part of the country. Most of these strikes apparently were carried out by relatively small units living off the countryside, and appeared primarily designed to achieve psychological gains. The Communists applied enough military pressure to keep Cambodians tied down to defensive positions in major towns and cities; they withdrew from several population centers after holding them for brief periods. The United States

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decided not to commit any ground troops to Cambodia; all U.S. troops and advisors were withdrawn by June 30, 1970 after completing their 60-day mission against Communist caches in Cambodia.



Figure 5. Aerial view of Snoul, 90% destroyed in fighting. May 1970

On the more positive side, there is reason to believe that, with necessary training and equipment, FANK will become an effective fighting force. By July there were situations where the Cambodians fought valiantly and well, especially in defending fixed positions. The numerous new FANK recruits have been well-motivated and enthusiastic, and should benefit from training being provided by experienced South Vietnamese and Thai regulars. Cambodia has an adequate manpower base, but strains on the economy already have developed with the Army just over 100,000.

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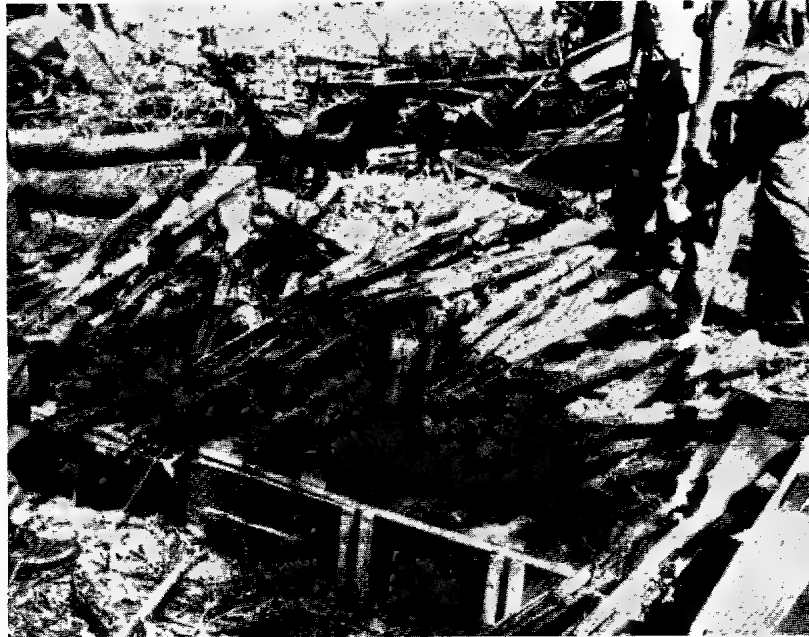


Figure 6. Weapons captured during U.S. operations in Cambodia, May 1970. (Approximately 125 Chicom type-56 (SKS) carbines, 7.62 mm, 1968 manufacture.)



Figure 7. Assortment of weapons captured during U.S. operations in Cambodia, May 1970. (107 mm over-caliber rocket with launching rails; recoilless rifle in foreground; various small arms and ammunition in background.)

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Figure 8. U.S. troops displaying Chinese Communist arms found during operations in Cambodia. May 1970.

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Figure 9. Weapons captured during U.S. operations in Cambodia, May 1970. (Includes French light-machinegun, 7.5 mm; U.S. Thompson sub-machineguns, 45 cal; Chicom type-53 (DPM) light machinegun, 7.62 mm; Soviet (DP) light machineguns, 7.62 mm; Soviet SKS and Chicom type-56 carbines; Soviet DSHK heavy machinegun, 12.7 mm with tripod.)

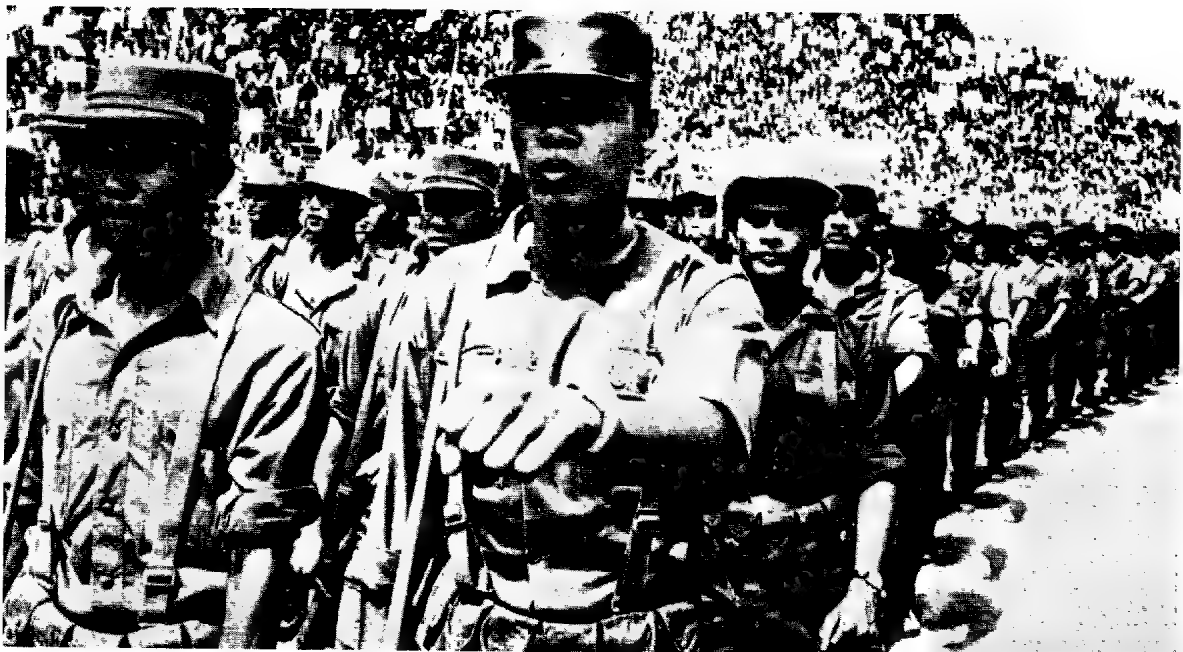


Figure 10. Troops parading at government rally in Phnom Penh. April 1970.

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The Cambodian Navy is a small force of 3,900 men capable of providing moderately effective river and lake patrol, limited coastal patrol, and some logistic and fire support for the Army. It is dependent on outside sources for equipment, training and advice. Until 1962, all naval vessels were commanded by French officers, but since then Cambodians have commanded and manned them. A 64-man French Naval Advisory Mission trained and guided the Navy until Sihanouk's ouster. The Navy's operational effectiveness is seriously limited by its total dependence on foreign sources of supply, budgetary limitations, shortages of trained personnel, inadequate repair facilities, the age of river patrol craft, and the small number of ships available for coastal patrol operations. The 2,700-man naval infantry, which consisted of five battalions, had virtually no amphibious capability. Predominantly infantry soldiers in naval uniform, this element was used for guard duty on the offshore islands and at the Ream Naval Base on the Gulf of Thailand. There was no naval air arm.

The Navy and the three-ship Cambodian merchant marine were under the control of the Chief of Staff of the Cambodian Navy. The nine section staff consisted of Personnel, Intelligence, Operations and Training, Logistics, Motor Transportation, Administration, Logistics, Security, and Service. There was no naval reserve and the number of retired or released personnel available for recall to active duty was negligible.

Naval headquarters are located at Phnom Penh with the main operational center at the U.S.-built base at Chrui Chang Var on the Mekong near Phnom Penh. A secondary base is located at Krakor on the Tonle Sap lake, and there are minor coastal naval facilities at Kampot and Lem Dam.

The operational forces consist of four components: a Coastal Force, based at Ream and comprising a patrol force and two transport groups; an Independent Sea Force, also based at Ream and comprising a patrol and amphibious force; a River Command Force based at Chrui Chang Var consisting of a transport group and a naval assault division; and the Naval Infantry which was divided between Phnom Penh, Ream and Kompong Som.

By 1970 the Navy consisted of 87 vessels including 2 former U.S. 173-foot-class large submarine chasers (PC); 2 Yugoslav-built motor torpedo boats (PT); an ex-U.S. large infantry landing ship (LSIL); 2 Soviet-built AVR type patrol boats; 3 Chinese-built CPB type patrol boats; a British ex-HDML type patrol boat; 3 ex-U.S. utility landing craft (LCU);

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12 mechanized landing craft (LCM); 39 armored craft (LCVP), and 3 former U.S. light yard tenders (YTL). Smaller units and an assortment of small former French river craft made up the balance of the fleet. Most of the larger ships and craft were based at Ream; those based at Chrui Chang Var were vulnerable to being denied sea access by mining of the Mekong River. The minor craft were at river and lake bases.

The Navy had only a few well trained and reasonably efficient officers and enlisted personnel, all of whom were volunteer. Limited education and lack of mechanical aptitude impaired their efficiency. Training facilities were at the Chrui Chang Var Instruction Center where noncommissioned officers and other selected enlisted personnel were offered basic and advanced courses in signal communication, navigation, supply, gunnery, electronics, and mechanics. Naval cadets and selected enlisted personnel were sent to France for officer training, after which they were assigned for practical shipboard experience to the cruiser Jeanne d'Arc, and returned to Cambodia for duty.

Operationally, the Independent Sea Force and the Coastal Force patrolled from the Thai border to South Vietnam's territorial waters. The River Command Force watched over inland territorial waters, especially the border area of the Mekong River, and provided tactical support to the Army in anti-guerrilla actions. Although these forces had demonstrated a fairly quick reaction to territorial violations, the Navy would be ineffective in combating any seaborne incursion. Consequently, to prevent any such incursion by the Vietnamese Communists, the South Vietnamese began patrolling the Cambodian coast and the Mekong River after Sihanouk's ouster.

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The Cambodian Air Force, with a total strength of 1,750 officers and men, had a primary mission of providing a minimal air defense capability and of supporting the Army with transport and tactical ground support. Its secondary missions included participation in civic action programs and providing a pool of pilots for civil aviation. The Air Force had no strategic air capability; its transport capability included aerial resupply, troop lift, paratroop and VIP transportation.

The Air Force Chief of Staff exercised operational control of all air units. His General Staff was composed of the 1st Bureau (Personnel), the 3rd Bureau (Operations), the 4th Bureau (Technical), and the Budget Bureau. Three groups (Operations, Technical, and Airbase) were located at Pochentong Airfield. The Operations Group, responsible for air sector control, was composed of five tactical squadrons (tactical fighter, transport, helicopter, liaison, and training). The Technical Group was responsible for maintenance and aircraft modification, while the Airbase Group handled ordnance, engineering, medical services, air police, housing and sports. Transport, communications, and supply were secondary services of the Phnom Penh Airbase. All squadrons were stationed at Pochentong Airfield because other fields, although classed as "military", had poor runways and no support facilities.

Capabilities have been limited by a small inventory of aircraft (some 120), many of which were nonoperational. With the outbreak of war, the equipment situation deteriorated rapidly and mechanics were forced to cannibalize to keep a few planes in the air. The Air Force always has been entirely dependent on foreign countries--France, the Soviet Union, and Communist China--for equipment, training and technical support. Since March, Cambodia has been unable to obtain spare parts for its Communist equipment. Current fighting has virtually exhausted equipment and supplies, and Cambodia has become even more dependent on foreign assistance to maintain its odd assortment of aircraft. Another major factor handicapping Air Force capabilities has been the chronic shortage of trained pilots and technicians. Since March 1970, the Cambodians have been conducting all but on-the-job training which is left to French technicians. Prior to that date, pilots spent one year at the Cambodian Military Academy and then received 64 weeks of ground and flight training at the Flying School. For advanced or conversion training, pilots went abroad, usually to France.

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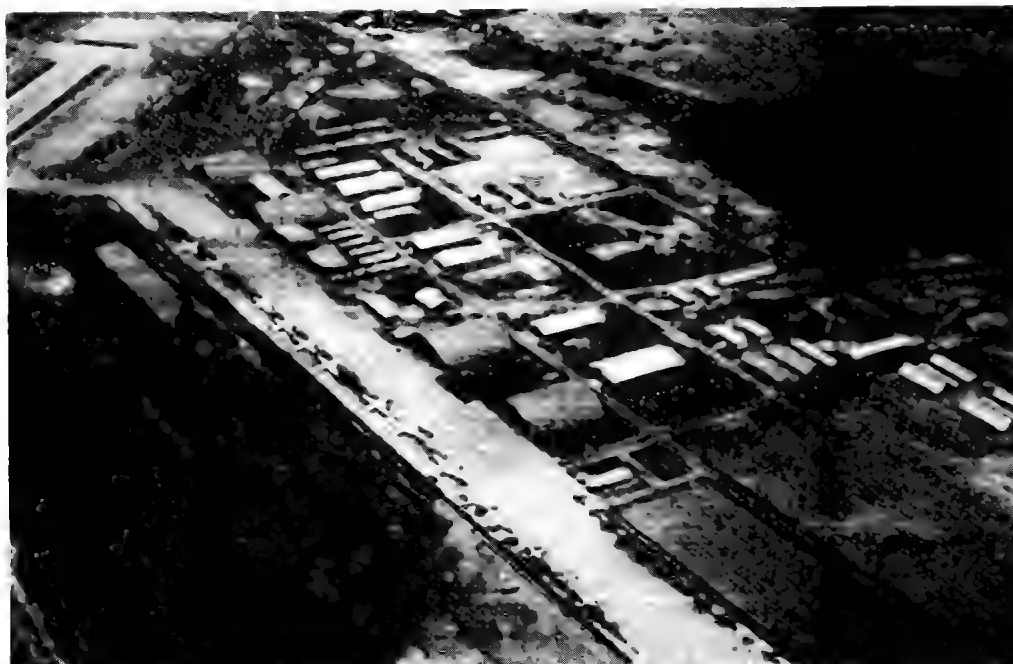


Figure 11. Pochentong Airfield. April 1964.



Figure 12. Air Force Base at Pochentong Airfield. 1963.

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C. Paramilitary Forces

Cambodia's paramilitary forces presently number some 35,000 men. Not considered part of FANK, these forces comprise the Auto-Defense (Self-Defense) which are armed villagers, the Commando de Jeunesse (Youth Commandos), and the Commando de Fonctionnaires (Government Employee Commandos). Before the April 1970 mobilization, the Auto-Defense was known as the Light Surface Defense Detachments (Detachments Legers de Defense en Surface - DLDS), also called the Home Guard or Chivapol. This was a non-uniformed, volunteer militia of 30,000 men, only half of whom were armed and active. The Jeunesse de Sauvetage (Youth of Salvation), formerly the Royal Khmer Socialist Youth (JSRK), functions as a supporting propaganda element of the Government. The JSRK, under Sihanouk, was a government-sponsored, voluntary youth auxiliary of the Sangkum with an estimated 1970 membership of 750,000 boys and girls between the ages of 12 and 18. Some 5,000 of its members were organized into approximately 14 regional commando groups (now designated Commando de Jeunesse), each having 100 to 200 of the older youth who had received some military training. The Commando de Fonctionnaires are security brigades of civil servants organized by the various government ministries. Sometimes uniformed, they perform security functions throughout the country. These several elements are voluntary; they receive a subsistence allowance only when serving away from their home area to assist the Army.

Prior to April 1970, Cambodia's paramilitary forces included the Provincial Guard (PG) in addition to the aforementioned DLDS and JSRK. This was a professional, uniformed police force whose members were paid regularly. A 2,500-man Urban Police was a part of the PG.

The PG and the DLDS were organized under the umbrella of the Surface Defense Forces (SDF), which generally was responsible for interior security. The SDF was headed by the Undersecretary for Surface Defense, responsible to the Minister of Interior. Since the 1970 mobilization, the Secretariat of Surface Defense has been dissolved; the Minister of Interior now carries the title -- Minister of Interior, Security and Religion. The Provincial Guard has been absorbed into the Army, and it is expected that the Urban Police shortly will follow suit.

The PG had been organized into a General Staff, a basic training school in Kompong Chhnang now used for FANK training -- and 20 brigades, with one for each of the 19 provinces

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and a General Brigade for Phnom Penh. The brigades had ranged in size from 200 to 1,000 men. Before being incorporated into FANK, the PG was at the disposal of the provincial governors and their subordinate political chiefs. It was responsible for public safety in rural areas and for guarding sensitive sites and installations. The Urban Police had a similar law and order mission in urban areas, except for Phnom Penh, Kep and Kompong Som where other police exercised jurisdiction.



Figure 13. Parade of Women Members of Paramilitary Movement during celebration of 9th Anniversary of Country's Independence. November 13, 1962.

PG officer applicants were required to be between the ages of 18 and 25, hold a baccalaureate degree, and be of good character, health and reputation. Enlisted qualifications were identical except for lower educational requirements. While employees were supposed to be chosen on the basis of open competitive examinations, police positions were available for purchase. Enlistments were for two years, with enlisted men serving in their home provinces and officers subject to service anywhere in Cambodia. Enlisted men received training at the Provincial Guard Training School at Kompong Chhnang, while officers were trained at the Khmer Police Academy in Phnom Penh.

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Figure 14. Provincial Guard post. April 1966.

Under peacetime conditions, the PG had been capable of performing internal police and security duties, but even then was incapable of effective border control. Capabilities were limited by the wide dispersal of guardsmen in small detachments, lack of effective training, and unsatisfactory maintenance of equipment. In 1967, for example, one-third of the PG's vehicles were nonoperational and the remainder were approaching obsolescence. The extreme supply and logistics problems which accompanied mobilization made consolidation into FANK a practical necessity.

The DLDS was responsible for law enforcement, border patrol, collecting intelligence information for the PG, and acting as a village defense force. Originally, DLDS personnel were recruited by village chiefs and were under their autonomous control except for provincial governor direction. The DLDS was capable of local village police duties, but like the other paramilitary forces, it was no match for the Vietnamese Communists and has been withdrawn from Communist-controlled areas.

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Figure 15. Village self-defense unit.
April 1962.

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 CAMBODIA

CHAPTERS II and III

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
<u>CHAPTER II. Police and Intelligence Services</u>	
A. Introduction	1
B. Police	2
C. Intelligence	5
<u>Photographs</u> (Abbreviated Titles)	
<u>Figure No.</u>	
1 French-constructed police post	3
2 Police station	4
<u>CHAPTER III. Subversion and Insurgency</u>	
A. Introduction	1
B. Communist Subversion	1
C. Other Anti-Government Activities	3
Reading List - Part III	5

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- CAMBODIA

CHAPTER II - POLICE AND INTELLIGENCE SERVICES
(August 1970)

A. Introduction

The Cambodians, an orderly and law-abiding people, have a high code of personal morality rooted in Buddhist ethics and usually adhere to the disciplines imposed by family and social groups. Historically, Cambodia has enjoyed a low crime rate and crimes of violence have been rare.

The Cambodian judicial system is based on French juridical principles. It incorporates traditional Cambodian forms and practices, adapted to conform to modern French legal codes. While the Cambodian Constitution did not provide specifically for separation of executive, legislative and judicial powers, such separation has existed in actual practice. There have been no checks on the exercise of executive or legislative power, and the judicial system frequently has been vulnerable to outside influence and pressure. The National Assembly and not the judiciary was empowered to interpret the Constitution. A combination of traditional and Western concepts of jurisprudence provided a system that generally has protected the individual.

Serious flaws in the system, nevertheless, have been evident. The power of police officers to act as a summary court and impose fines or jail terms has led to abuses and harassment of citizens. The Chinese and Vietnamese minorities have been especially vulnerable to arbitrary police action. Mid-night raids occurred frequently and surprise arrests were made, usually without warrants. Bail was provided for but rarely used, and the right of a hearing on a writ of habeas corpus was still a novelty in 1970. The property of anyone charged with, or even arrested, for a crime against the state could be confiscated, as well as that of his family and near relatives. Political prisoners frequently were jailed without a hearing or trial. One of Lon Nol's first acts was to release hundreds of Sihanouk's political prisoners.

The Cambodian prison system, administered under authority of the Minister of Interior, was rudimentary and inadequate. Even the most modern prisons at Phnom Penh and the provincial capitals were overcrowded, unsanitary and primitive by Western standards. In many of the smaller jails, prisoners had to rely on family or friends to supply food and other necessities. The more modern prisons were frame

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buildings with reasonably secure arrangements, while the typical village jail might be only a temporary bamboo cage. A prison camp was established on Koh Antay Island in 1957, and a reformatory for juveniles, the Koh Tonsay Reeducation Center, was located at Kep.

B. Police

Under Sihanouk, responsibility for police and security forces rested in the Ministry of Interior. The National Police (NP) and the Municipal Police (MP), each with a strength of some 1,500 individuals, have been the divisions responsible for control and investigation of common crime. Since the removal of Sihanouk, FANK has assumed virtually sole authority in the security field with a consequent loss of power by the National and Municipal Police.

Currently, there is a profusion of police and security organizations. Adding to the confusion, most government ministries have organized their own security brigades -- Commando de Fonctionnaires (Government Employee Commandos). Police problems are sometimes aggravated by the Commando de Jeunesse (Youth Commando) units that have organized at the secondary schools and universities. In some instances commandos have not been adequately controlled by the police and have attacked Vietnamese, including soldiers and sailors, along the streets.

The National Police, with a strength of 1,300 men, exercises nationwide jurisdiction and a broad range of functions, including intelligence collection and production. The Director of the NP is assisted by the Chiefs of his two divisions, the Investigative Division and the Support Division.

The Investigative Division has six branches: Special Police (maintenance of public security, including intelligence activity relating thereto; political intelligence, particularly subversion and popular disaffection); Immigration Police (maintenance of files on foreign residents; deportation of undesirable aliens); Identification Police (maintenance of files on native Cambodians; police laboratory work); Judiciary Police (crime prevention; maintenance of order; licensing and traffic; major crimes carrying penalties of imprisonment); Port Police (customs inspection and policing of airports, ports and border areas); and, Economic Police (smuggling, currency manipulation, blackmarket activity). The Support Division also has six bureaus: the Khmer Police Academy, Communications, Personnel, Logistics,

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Finance, and Passports.

The Municipal Police formerly exercised jurisdiction in Phnom Penh, Kep, and Kompong Som. It tended to be primarily responsible to the mayors of those cities and performed routine public order function. In Phnom Penh, the Municipal Police now have been effectively subsumed within the Special Military Region Command which essentially is responsible for the security of that city. (The Special Military Region includes a radius of 30 kilometers around Phnom Penh and the Province of Kandal.)

The Urban Police of the former Provincial Guard had constituted the individual police forces in the various cities and towns, excepting Phnom Penh, Kep and Kompong Som. The forces were located primarily in the provincial capitals, were decentralized and usually functioned independently. The Urban Police have now come under military control and are likely to be integrated into FANK, as was the Provincial Guard.



Figure 1. Police post constructed by French in 1934. 1962.

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Figure 2. Police station. January 1965.

The Military Police (Prevote Militaire), formerly the Royal Gendarmerie, is responsible for investigation of civilian and military crimes, preservation of military security in the armed forces, undertaking special missions of a political investigative nature, maintaining personal security protection for the Chief of State and all ministers, and handling traffic control. A force of 3,478 men, the Military Police have wielded major authority since the outbreak of war. The Municipal Police, while functioning adequately, are reportedly demoralized by the growing dominance of the military.

Police training formerly was provided by the Khmer Police Academy which was built and equipped by the United States in 1960. While it offered courses in routine police work, advanced and technical training had to be obtained abroad. The regular police forces were held in low esteem by the general public which regarded them as an instrument of oppression rather than protection. Although both the Municipal and National Police could handle routine problems and maintain order under normal conditions, their capacity was hampered by poor administration, lack of trained personnel, inadequate equipment, and thin distribution of forces.

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C. Intelligence

Cambodian intelligence activities have been conducted by civil, military and paramilitary authorities. There has been no central directing or coordinating body; the loosely organized intelligence community has lacked coordination among the various agencies and been hampered by considerable duplication of effort. Its intelligence elements have been concerned almost exclusively with domestic security and, until March 1970, protection of Sihanouk's regime. Cambodia has had virtually no foreign intelligence collection capability. (Some operations were mounted against anti-Sihanouk Cambodians in neighboring Thailand and South Vietnam.) Employees of these agencies generally have lacked experience and professionalism, and have been especially weak in clandestine investigative techniques. Since the outbreak of war the military has dominated intelligence activities.

The Special Police of the National Police is the principal civilian intelligence service. It has grown from 200 to 1,000 men since March 1970 and its personnel, stationed throughout the country, have concentrated on political opposition groups, especially the Vietnamese Communists. The counter-espionage section has been made a separate section to handle security matters pertaining to Vietnamese residents in Cambodia. The Special Police has authority to investigate all activities potentially dangerous to the government; it handles radio communications between headquarters and the provinces; conducts censorship; and surveils foreigners, including diplomatic personnel.

Special Police files are neither integrated nor cross-indexed to files maintained by other elements of the National Police establishment. Dossiers are prepared on persons and organizations under investigation or of special interest. Special Police informants formerly were chosen at random from among persons seeking employment; they often were coerced into cooperating and received only rudimentary training. Physical surveillance, poorly concealed for the most part, was heavily used. It was not uncommon, for instance, for a pedicab driver to establish his observation post directly opposite a target installation and remain there for extended periods. Some members of the Special Police have been trained in wiretap and audio-surveillance, and the force has several trained photographers and a small photographic laboratory.

The SEDOC (Section d'Etudes et Documentation), also known as the Special Police of the Presidency of the Council

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of Ministers (the Prime Minister), was a small civilian organization of fifteen employees until March 1970. Under Sihanouk its main tasks had been to protect the royal family and to investigate individuals and groups suspected of clandestine activity on behalf of foreign powers. It conducted surveillance of official foreign representatives and reportedly had some success in penetrating foreign installations. Since the government change it has been used almost exclusively by Lon Nol.

Previously, the Second Bureau of the General Staff, Surface Defense, was responsible for collecting and processing intelligence information on internal security matters, and for conducting propaganda and psychological warfare. With only sixteen personnel, it relied heavily on PG and DLDS resources to collect its intelligence information. Since the dissolving of the PG in April 1970, the Second Bureau has been dissolved and its functions assumed by other organizations.

The Second Bureau (Deuxieme Bureau) of the Armed Forces General Staff (FANK G-2) has both intelligence and counter-intelligence responsibilities. It collects tactical and order of battle information for the Army, prepares a daily situation report, and has assumed the former Sixth Bureaus' military security responsibilities. (The Sixth Bureau was largely staffed by pro-Sihanouk individuals and was abolished after the coup.) It is the only Cambodian service which conducts intelligence operations in foreign countries. It relies extensively on the use of informants, and is able to use armed forces resources in support of missions.

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- CAMBODIA

CHAPTER III - SUBVERSION AND INSURGENCY
(September 1970)

Introduction

This section provides a brief chronological sketch of the subversion and insurgency which Cambodia experienced between World War II and Sihanouk's fall from power in March 1970.

Subversion is contrary to the nature of the great majority of the Cambodian people whose traditional social order has been molded by ethnic unity, a common devotion to Buddhism, possession of an essentially common language and, until recently, common homage to the royal family. The cohesive characteristics of Cambodian society have contributed to national strength and internal stability. Notwithstanding these stabilizing forces, the Cambodian Government has been troubled by some dissidence, particularly since early 1967. Prior to the events of recent months, dissatisfaction with the existing order, which arose principally among the young intellectuals, manifested itself passively in various ways. It included resentment against Sihanouk and his entourage, who stifled the development of initiative, leadership, purpose and responsibility, and a questioning of the significance and legitimacy of the monarchy.

Communist Subversion

The North Vietnamese have looked upon the three countries of Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia as a single battlefield but, until Sihanouk's fall, put Cambodia last on their military priority list. Communist subversion in Cambodia came to the surface during the period between 1946 and 1954. At that time, the Cambodian Communist apparatus consisted largely of a Vietnamese guerrilla organization with an estimated armed membership of 5,000 to 6,000 men; this force harassed but never seriously threatened the French and Cambodian armies. North Vietnam provided front leaders in organizing the National Liberation Committee of Free Cambodia and the National United Front of Free Cambodia. These groups attracted few Communist-oriented Cambodians and gained little popular following. At this early stage of subversion, agents of the Lao Dong (Workers) Party of North Vietnam directed Communist activities in Cambodia; although some of the Communists pre-

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sented themselves as "volunteers" to help the Cambodians "liberate" themselves from French colonialism, they failed to capture significant Cambodian support.

By 1954 most nationalist leaders had given up their subversive struggle and had begun to support the new royal government. Those Cambodian guerrillas who had supported the Communist were demobilized and most Vietnamese Communist forces were evacuated in October 1954. There was no apparent move to organize national united fronts such as those which were formed in Vietnam and Laos in 1955 and early 1956. The Communists were unable to move ahead with their plans since they had no political base upon which a revolutionary movement could be built and lacked physical continuity to Communist-held areas. Therefore, while this shift to peaceful methods after the Geneva Conference conformed to the change in the world Communist movement, it also probably represented an appraisal that Communist aims could better be served by non-military means.

During this period of the 50's, Paris became the training ground for Cambodian leftists. They established the Organization of Khmer Students and the Club for Marxist Khmer Studies; graduates returning from France occupied teaching positions in Cambodian public and private schools. Intellectuals and students who traveled and studied outside Cambodia became critical of the country's traditional ways, economic stagnation and Sihanouk's authoritarian rule. To combat the growing threat of leftist indoctrination and subversion of Cambodia's youth, the government launched a three-fold program: it attempted to alleviate specific grievances; it sought to define the incompatibility of Marxist ideology with Cambodian traditions; and it appealed to nationalistic and royalist sentiments. In 1957 Sihanouk organized the Royal Khmer Socialist Youth to inculcate the young people with his philosophy of socialism and to close the widening gap between them and his Sangkum party which had been created in 1955.

The political vehicle of the Communist movement in Cambodia during the post-war period was the Pracheachon (People's) Party. Its roots go back to the Cambodian section of the Indochina Communist Party which, in February 1951, created the Revolutionary Party of the Cambodian People (Sivatha). After Cambodia was granted independence in 1953, Sivatha changed its name and became the Pracheachon Party. It established itself as a legal political party in July 1955 in time to contest the September 1955 National Assembly elections. Failing to elect any of its candidates at that time, the

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Party again suffered overwhelming defeat at the polls in 1958. (By the early 1960's the Party had become politically dormant; it may presently be operating underground or some of its members may have joined Sihanouk's new FUNK -- the National United Front of Cambodia.)

During this period, Sihanouk's policy of appointing leading leftists to cabinet posts for the purpose of achieving national unity enabled these pro-Communist elements to exercise some influence on government programs. The State Secretariat for Information, for example, contained a number of leftists; there was no positive evidence, however, that any hard-core Cambodian Communists had widely penetrated the bureaucracy. Communist exploitation and manipulation of the Vietnamese community in Cambodia was highly developed, their subversive network having operated on two levels: overtly, through a mass organization called Viet Kieu (Overseas Vietnamese), and covertly through that organization's cell structure. The predominantly pro-Peking sympathies among the Chinese community also was a source of concern to the Cambodian Government.

Other Anti-Government Activities

Until 1967 the Khmer Serei (Free Khmer) movement was Cambodia's only active non-Communist dissident organization. An exile group whose members live in neighboring South Vietnam and Thailand, the Khmer Serei's effort was confined to clandestine propaganda broadcasts, distribution of political leaflets in border areas, and routine ambushes of Cambodian army units. Thailand supported the Khmer Serei until 1966 when Sihanouk increased his border defenses and sent retaliatory guerrilla attacks into Thailand. South Vietnam's involvement with the Khmer Serei has been longer and more extensive than Thailand's. Active South Vietnamese support extended from 1956 until the Diem regime was overthrown in 1963; it was resumed by the new government in Saigon in 1964. For all intents and purposes, use of this dissident group to subvert the Cambodian Government ended when its leader Son Ngoc Thanh suggested to Cambodia's Lon Nol that the Khmer Serei be used against the Viet Cong and Communist elements in Cambodia.

Beginning in 1967, active dissidence and insurgency began to increase in the outlying provinces. Two dissident groups were engaged in this activity: elements of the Khmer Loeu (Hill Khmer) tribal groups in the northeast, and the Khmer Rouge (Red Khmer) in the west and southwest. The Khmer Loeu, a relatively passive people, rebelled in mid-1967 when

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the Cambodian Government sought to increase its authority in the northeast highlands. An enforced labor requirement prompted the Khmer Loeu to petition the Government for redress of their grievances; in late 1967 they mounted large demonstrations against food shortages and the establishment of additional security posts by provincial authorities. Following sporadic attacks in February 1968, tribal dissidents launched a determined guerrilla campaign in April against army units in Ratanakiri Province and by June the rebellion had spread into Stung Treng and Mondolkiri Provinces. While Communist influence in the earlier phases of this dissidence is not clear, there is evidence that, in the latter phases, the Vietnamese Communists were supporting the Khmer Locu.

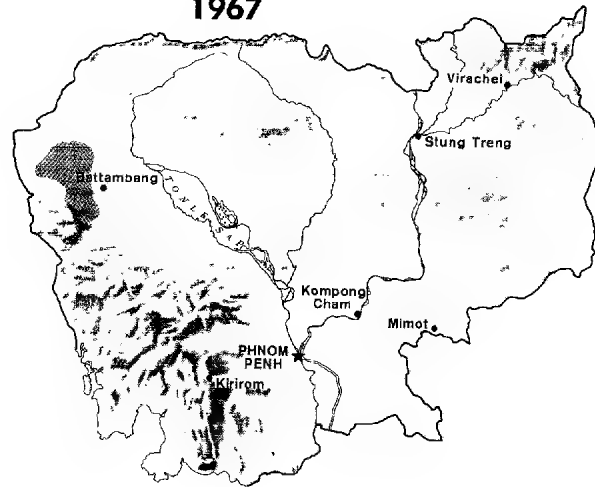
Khmer Rouge unrest first appeared in the western province of Battambang in January 1967. (This group may have included some of the hard-core Communist guerrillas who remained behind and merged with the Vietnamese population in Cambodia when the majority of guerrillas were withdrawn in 1954.) During March and April, the insurgency spread over the western and southern areas of the country. Insurgency activity continued throughout the rest of the year, but on a reduced scale. It intensified again early in 1968, and gradually extended in scope and increased in size. Still, the government did not view it as a serious threat to internal stability. Outside of the northeast, there was little reliable evidence of any extensive Vietnamese Communist support to the Khmer Rouge. The insurgents did not display signs of being part of an effective, coordinated, nationwide movement. Their terrorist tactics served to alienate villagers, and the Cambodian Army kept them on the move in many areas. In 1969 Khmer Rouge activity continued, but was not significantly greater than in previous years.

Although some Khmer Rouge elements may still operate independently, it is logical to assume that most insurgents have been absorbed by the Communists to help flesh out Siahnoul's so-called "Liberation Army." Thus, subversion and insurgency in Cambodia have been transmuted into Hanoi's current military campaign against the Lon Nol regime. No small part of this effort is political, however, as there is abundant evidence testifying to the high priority the Communists attach to building a viable Cambodian Communist infrastructure in the countryside.

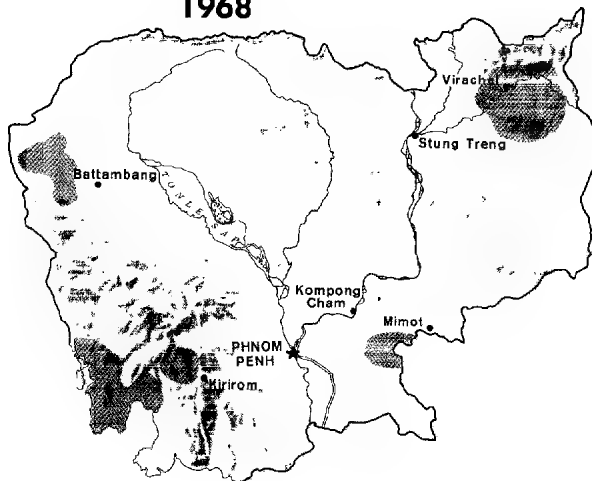
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Cambodia SUSTAINED GUERRILLA ACTIVITY

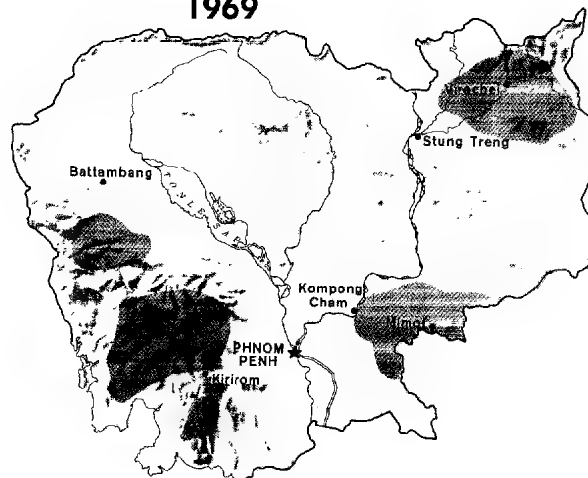
1967



1968



1969



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READING LIST -- PART III

1.

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- CAMBODIA

APPENDIX

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 - CAMBODIA
MILITARY REGIONS/PROVINCES

Military Region I

Kompong Cham - Headquarters
Prey Veng
Svay Rieng

Military Region II

Kompong Speu - Headquarters
Kampot
Takeo
Koh Kong

Military Region III

Battambang - Headquarters
Pursat
Kompong Chhnang

Military Region IV

Siem Reap - Headquarters
Kompong Thom
Preah Vihear
Oddar Meanchey

Military Regions V and VI (Dissolved)

Stung Treng
Ratanakiri
Kratie
Mondolkiri

Special Military Region

Phnom Penh and all districts within a 30 km. radius
Kandal

S-E-C-R-E-T

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- CAMBODIA

HISTORICAL CHRONOLOGY

200-535	The Funan Period
535-802	The Chen-la Period
802-850	Cambodian Kingdom begins with reign of Jayavarman II
1171-1181	Invasion and occupation of Cambodia by the Chams
1350-1430	Almost incessant wars between Thais and Khmers
1431-1432	Thais sack Angkor which is abandoned
1863	Cambodia becomes a French Protectorate
1884	Conventions with French reduce Cambodia to semi-colonial status
1887	Cambodia becomes part of French Indochina Union
1941	French select Prince Norodom Sihanouk to succeed to throne
	Japanese forces occupy Cambodia; French permitted to continue their administration
1945 Mar	Japanese take over colonial administration of Cambodia; instruct Sihanouk to declare national independence
Nov	French colonial administration returns to Cambodia and establishes period of semiautonomy
1946 Dec	Fighting begins between French Union forces and troops of Communist "Democratic Republic of Vietnam"
1947 May	King Norodom Sihanouk promulgates Constitution providing for parliamentary system of government

S-E-C-R-E-T

S-E-C-R-E-T

1949 Nov	French-Cambodian Treaty recognizes Cambodia as an associated independent state within French Union
1951 Sep	Economic cooperation agreement signed with United States
1953 Jan	Sihanouk dissolves National Assembly and strengthens personal control of government
Nov	Sihanouk proclaims complete political independence for Cambodia following agreement with France
1954 Jul	Geneva Agreements signed, ending hostilities in Indochina
1955 Mar	Sihanouk abdicates but retains control of government; organizes Sangkum Reastr Niyum (People's Socialist Community) as mass political instrument
May	Military assistance agreement signed with United States
Dec	Cambodia admitted to membership in United Nations
1956 May	Cambodia and USSR agree to establish diplomatic relations
Jun	Economic aid agreement signed with Communist China
1958 Jul	Formal recognition of Communist China announced
1960 Apr	King Norodom Suramarit dies; Council of Regency chosen to carry out functions of Chief of State
1961 Oct	Diplomatic relations with Thailand broken
1963 May	Sihanouk signs treaty of friendship with Communist China
Aug	Diplomatic relations with South Vietnam broken
Nov	Sihanouk publicly asks that all U.S. aid programs be terminated

S-E-C-R-E-T

S-E-C-R-E-T

1964 Jan	First shipment of military equipment from Communist China
Mar	Government-sponsored mob attacks U.S. and U.K. embassies after accidental strafing of village by South Vietnamese aircraft
Apr	Gen. Lon Nol signs protocol with USSR providing increased military aid to Cambodia
Oct	New agreement expands Communist Chinese military assistance
Nov	Khmer Serei elements begin sporadic attacks on border from bases in Thailand
1965 May	Diplomatic relations with United States are broken
Jun	Protocol allows Chinese Communist military technicians to be sent to Cambodia
1966 Apr	North Vietnam upgrades commercial representative to Cambodia to diplomatic level
Sep	National Assembly elections held
Oct	Lon Nol, new Prime Minister, appoints moderate cabinet
1967 Apr	Resignation of Lon Nol government
Apr	Beginning of insurgent activity in western Cambodia
May	Sihanouk forms interim government, including leftists
Jun	Ambassadors exchanged with North Vietnam; "diplomatic status" granted to representatives of National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam
1969 Aug	Sihanouk asks Lon Nol to form a new government
1970 Jan	Sihanouk goes to France for a vacation
Mar	Sihanouk ousted; goes into exile in Peking

S-E-C-R-E-T

Mar	Sihanouk announces formation of the National United Front of Cambodia and the Khmer Liberation Army
Apr-Jun	U.S. and South Vietnam launch 60-day invasion into Vietnamese Communist supply areas in Cambodia
May	Sihanouk announces establishment of Royal Government of National Union, his exile government in Peking
May	Communist China, North Vietnam, and North Korea break relations with the government of Cambodia
May	Relations with Thailand and South Vietnam re-established
May-Jun	United States provides Cambodia \$8.9 million in military aid
Jun	United States, Thai, and South Vietnamese planes step-up air operations in Cambodia
Jun	Cambodian troops complete withdrawal from the four northeastern provinces of Ratanakiri, Stung Treng, Mondolkiri, and Kratie
Jul	President Nguyen Van Thieu of South Vietnam visits Cambodia
Aug	United States and Cambodia sign a \$50 million military assistance agreement for FY 1971
Oct	Cambodia is proclaimed a republic

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- CAMBODIA

RECOMMENDED FILMS

1. American Abroad - Cambodia/South Vietnam/Pakistan/Ghana. Intertel/Associated Rediffusions, 1962, 16 mm, sound, black and white, 62 minutes. CIA Film R6481. OUO. (US, USSR, Communist China compete with foreign assistance.)
2. Assignment - Southeast Asia. NBC/TV, 1957, 16 mm, sound, color, 80 minutes. CIA Film L6118. OUO. (General description of area; colonial system and Japanese influence.)
3. Buddhism after 2500 Years. USIA, 1957, 16 mm, sound, color, 39 minutes. CIA Film N6491. OUO. (Cambodian celebration of 2500th anniversary of Buddhism.)
4. Cambodia: The Peaceful Paradox - Close-up. ABC/TV, 1962, 16 mm, sound, black and white, 62 minutes. CIA Film R6283. OUO. (Area Study: focus on Phnom Penh; interviews with Sihanouk.)
5. Cambodia, Neutral in the Middle - The Vietnam War - ABC Scope XXXVII. ABC/TV, 1966, 16 mm, sound, black and white, 28 minutes. CIA Film W6649. OUO. (Jaffe's film evaluation of whether Cambodia is Communist sanctuary.)
6. Highway to Progress - Cambodia Documentary No. 21. USIA, 1959, 16 mm, sound, black and white, 29 minutes. CIA Film M7126. OUO. (Cambodian track with English script available.) (Construction of 136 mile road between Phnom Penh and Kompong Som (Sihanoukville).)
7. Pictorial Review of Cambodia. 1953, 16 mm, silent, color, 32 minutes. CIA Film H7349. C. (Amateur footage showing geography and way of life; script identifying locations accompanies the film.)
8. Races of the Mekong River. TOWA, 1958, 16 mm, sound, black and white, 86 minutes. CIA Film W6354. OUO. (Ethnological team visits tribes, tracing Japanese origins.)
9. The Royal Ballet of Cambodia. USIA, 1965, 16 mm, sound, color, 81 minutes. CIA Film W6727. OUO. (Ballet performs classical dances; representation of historical scenes, love of people for tradition and dance; costuming.)

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